

Integrating conservation and development: community participation in ecotourism projects

**An investigation into community participation in ecotourism
development projects in order to ensure the integration of
protected area conservation and rural development, with
particular reference to a case study at Cathedral Peak in the
Natal Drakensberg Park.**

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the Department of Environmental and Geographical Science, University of Cape Town.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ANC	African National Congress
CATAD	Center for Advanced Training in Agricultural Development (Berlin)
CBO	Community-based Organisation
CROP	Community Resource Optimisation Programme
CSIR	Centre for Science and Industrial Research
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
GEM	Group for Environmental Monitoring
I&APs	Interested and Affected Parties
IEM	Integrated Environmental Management
IFP	Inkatha Freedom Party
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature, now known as the World Conservation Union
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NPB	Natal Parks Board
PEIA	Preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment
Satour	South African Tourism Board
SPP	Surplus People Project
TOR	Terms of Reference
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

Chapter 1

Introduction

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

This study arises out of a proposal of the Natal Parks Board¹ (NPB) to develop a 200 bed hutted camp at Cathedral Peak in the Natal Drakensberg. In line with the NPB's stated commitment to the principles of Integrated Environmental Management (IEM), a multi-disciplinary group, comprising five students from the Masters programme of the Department of Environmental and Geographical Sciences of the University of Cape Town, was commissioned to conduct a Preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment (PEIA) on the proposed development. The author was one of the members of this study team, hereafter referred to as the Masters Group, which conducted the PEIA at Cathedral Peak under the supervision of the Environmental Evaluation Unit of the University of Cape Town.

1.1.1 The Development Proposal

The Natal Parks Board proposed to develop a 200 bed hutted camp at Cathedral Peak. This development proposal would increase the spectrum of accommodation facilities offered to visitors in the area, and occurs within the context of the proposed upgrading of the existing campsite, day-visitor facilities, entrance gate and craft market at Cathedral Peak.

The proposed hutted camp would be of a split level design on a combined site consisting of the Tryme Shelf, situated below the Clarens Foundation sandstone cliffs, and a broad spur of land, in front of and below the shelf on the Park headquarters site, which is adjacent to the existing NPB office area and CSIR research station (See Plate 1). The upper site would consist mainly of accommodation units, while the bulk of the infrastructure would be situated on the lower site. This would include a restaurant, a reception and curio area, conference facilities and accommodation units. The accommodation units would consist of self-catering and non self-catering units, with the latter being situated in close proximity to the proposed restaurant.

The proposed development would target both international and national visitors, and would be in line with the luxury Hilltop camp situated in the Umfolozi-Hluhluwe Park in Maputoland, in northern KwaZulu/Natal (See Plate 2). The marketing image of the proposed development would be that of an unique, mountain environment on the threshold of a wilderness.

¹The Natal Parks Board is a statutory conservation body, founded in 1947, which administers protected natural areas in the KwaZulu/Natal province. At present, 10.4 percent of the land in the province falls under the jurisdiction of the Natal Parks Board and is managed as protected areas.



Plate 1: The proposed development site at Cathedral Peak is situated below the Clarens sandstone cliffs (on the left hand side of the picture).



Plate 2: The non-self catering units at Hilltop Camp in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park. The proposed development at Cathedral Peak would be in line with this type of development.

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1.1.2 The Preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment

The Terms of Reference (TOR) of the preliminary environmental impact assessment included a scoping exercise to identify and obtain the view of all Interested and Affected Parties (I&AP's), as well as a socio-economic survey. The aim of the socio-economic survey was to identify potential positive and negative impacts of the proposed development on neighbouring communities, as well as to identify opportunities for community involvement, both in the construction and post-construction phases of the proposed development.

The Masters Group spent a period of seven weeks in the Cathedral Peak area, conducting the preliminary environmental impact assessment. Thereafter, a three volume report which consolidated all the information of the PEIA, was compiled. This report, the *Preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment of the Proposed Development of a Hutted Camp at Cathedral Peak, Natal Drakensberg Park*, hereafter referred to as the Baseline Report², has been submitted to the NPB and is to be subjected to an external review panel. Furthermore, the report is being made available to Interested and Affected Parties (I&AP's) to allow for public response.

1.1.3 The Individual Dissertation

The product of the Masters Group project, the Preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment of the Proposed Development of a Hutted Camp at Cathedral Peak, Natal Drakensberg Park, went beyond the usual requirements set by the masters course. The Baseline Report is a consolidated impact assessment, as opposed to the requirement for a data report in which no assessment or evaluation of information is conducted. Thus, there was more flexibility in the scope of the individual dissertation to elaborate on certain aspects of the group project, whilst still being grounded in that environmental impact assessment.

1.2 Approach to the Study

1.2.1 Rationale for this Study

Most conservation agencies have sound neighbour relations policies in place, but often lack the commitment, manpower or expertise to successfully implement these. Therefore, rural communities living adjacent to protected areas may receive tangible socio-economic benefits from conservation, but are seldom encouraged to effectively participate in the planning and management of these protected areas, or in the associated ecotourism developments in and around these areas.

In order to ensure the survival of protected areas in a changing South Africa, these areas have to fulfill a dual role. Firstly, protected areas have to ensure the conservation of biological

²Refer to Chapter 6 of this study for a more detailed discussion of the Cathedral Peak Case Study.

diversity. This will not only be achieved through protectionist measures, but also by changing attitudes towards protected areas, through increasing people's awareness of the benefits of conservation. Secondly, protected areas have to provide the rural poor with opportunities for social upliftment through participatory decision-making, and the provision of socio-economic benefits. There is thus a need to integrate the conservation of protected areas with sustainable rural development.

However, conservation priorities are often set from outside the local communities, in the priorities of national conservation organisations or by international organisations (Adams, 1990). Furthermore, "the policy proposals of these development conservationists may be as alien to the conceptions of the local people as any proposed by other developers, and as adverse to their interests" (*ibid.*). Very often, local communities are not consulted in the early stages of planning, and thus the opportunity for local input is very limited. This has been the case for the NPB's ecotourism development proposal at Cathedral Peak, where local communities were only consulted after several years of planning. The proposed ecotourism development is thus based on NPB's perceived needs of the local community, providing for socio-economic benefits without real socio-economic upliftment and empowerment.

This dissertation has consequently been regarded as an opportunity to investigate the rationale for integrating conservation and development, as well as the need for the participation of local communities during all stages of development, to achieve this integration. To this end, the concept of integrated conservation and development projects, and the role of ecotourism development as a means to integrate protected area conservation and rural development are explored. Failure of many projects to attain this integration (Brandon and Wells, 1993) indicates that there is a need for a practical tool to ensure effective local participation in ecotourism developments associated with protected areas. This study sets out to create a checklist to maximize community participation in ecotourism developments so as to ensure the successful integration of conservation and development. The Checklist³ will be of use for conservation managers, environmental planners, and developers, and will provide them with a guiding tool to promote local participation in ecotourism projects.

1.2.2 Methodology

The first step of the dissertation was to conduct a literature survey on various international, national and regional policies and objectives to determine the rationale for the integration of conservation and development. Thereafter, the various components of integrated conservation and development projects were illustrated by means of case studies. Ecotourism as a means to integrate conservation and development was discussed, and community participation in the

³Refer to Chapter 5 for the *Checklist for Maximizing Community Participation in Ecotourism Development in order to ensure the Successful Integration of Conservation and Development*.

components and phases of ecotourism development projects was discussed with reference to different case studies.

The second part of the dissertation used these principles and objectives identified in the literature survey to generate a checklist to maximize community participation in ecotourism development projects. Thereafter, by using the information contained in the Baseline Report, and the Checklist generated in the previous chapter, two ecotourism scenarios at Cathedral Peak were discussed and evaluated.

1.3 Structure of this Study

The need to integrate conservation and development has been emphasized by numerable international, national and regional policies. As far back as *The World Conservation Strategy* (1980), the conservation of biological diversity was linked to the sustainable utilisation of natural resources. Various additional policies and objectives which stipulate the need for sustainable development, and the need for rural communities to participate in the planning, management and conservation of neighbouring protected areas have been formulated since the *World Conservation Strategy*. Chapter 2 deals with the rationale for the integration of conservation and development by means of highlighting principles and goals of some of these international, national and regional policies and objectives. Furthermore, the key principles underpinning the successful integration of protected area conservation and rural development as discussed in these policies and objectives, are identified. These key principles are reflected in the various discussions in Chapter 3 and 4.

There is currently a shift from a protectionist ideology in the conservation of protected areas, to a multi-use role of protected areas in order to incorporate the needs of rural people living adjacent to these areas, in the planning and management of parks. Furthermore, there is a need for sustainable rural development which is not only ecologically and economically sustainable, but also conserves the natural resources of the neighbouring protected areas. This has led to the IUCN initiative of Integrated Conservation and Development Projects. Chapter 3 discusses the various key components of protected area management and sustainable rural development, and illustrates by means of case studies the various components necessary for the successful implementation of these projects. The Campfire project in Zimbabwe is centered around the planning, management and sustainable utilisation of wildlife through effective local participation and demand-driven institution building. Traditional resource management practices are one of the key components of the Annapurna Conservation Area Project in Nepal, and the Richtersveld case study illustrates the multi-use concept in the conservation of protected areas through local community participation.

Ecotourism is the fastest growing sector of tourism worldwide (Satour, 1994). In a country rich in biodiversity such as South Africa, ecotourism developments in and around protected

areas can play a significant role in the socio-economic upliftment of rural communities. However, in order to ensure ecotourism is a form of sustainable development it has to integrate the needs of local communities in the identification, planning, implementation and management of ecotourism projects. Ecotourism as means to integrate protected area conservation and sustainable rural development is discussed in Chapter 4, and the key components of such ecotourism development projects are illustrated by means of two case studies. The Phinda Resource Reserve in Maputoland, northern KwaZulu/Natal, encourages entrepreneurial opportunities to successfully link socio-economic benefits of neighbouring communities to the conservation of the protected area. The Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park in the same region, illustrates local involvement in ecotourism related activities. This conservation area provides local people with socio-economic benefits through employment opportunities, as well as by linking local crafts and agricultural activities to ecotourism development.

Chapter 5 draws on the discussions in chapters 2, 3 and 4 to generate a checklist to maximize community involvement in all phases of an ecotourism development project. The key principles identified in Chapter 2, and reflected in the components of Integrated Conservation and Development Projects in Chapter 4 as well as in the development phases of ecotourism development projects in Chapter 4, are used to ensure effective local participation in all aspects of ecotourism developments in protected areas. Guidelines for the successful implementation of these projects and their related activities are given for each development phase.

Cathedral Peak in the northern Drakensberg Park, KwaZulu/Natal, has been identified by the Natal Parks Board as a node to develop a 200 bed hutted camp. The discussion in Chapter 6 is based on the Baseline Report and deals with the Cathedral Peak Case Study in terms of the biophysical and socio-economic context of the area. Two possible ecotourism development scenarios are sketched for Cathedral Peak, with Scenario A being based on the current development proposal of the Natal Parks Board, and Scenario B guided by the Checklist generated in Chapter 5 and based on subjective interpretation of the information contained in the Baseline Report. Local community participation in both these scenarios is discussed, and each scenario is also evaluated in terms of the criteria of equity, efficiency, and sustainability.

Finally, Chapter 7 concludes with the main findings of the dissertation and provides recommendations to ensure effective local participation in ecotourism development projects in protected areas.

Chapter 2

Rationale for Integrating Conservation and Development

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CHAPTER 2 RATIONALE FOR INTEGRATING CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

"... the future of the earth's biological diversity is inextricably linked to improving the quality and security of life of rural populations so they are not forced to deplete their resources to survive ..."

(Wildlands and Human Needs Report, 1988 in Boo, 1990)

The world's biological diversity is increasingly concentrated in the diminishing number of natural areas that have remained more or less sheltered by the impact of human activity (Wilson, 1988 in Brandon and Wells, 1992). Biodiversity conservation efforts have established a world-wide network of parks and protected areas to protect these areas. However, the preservationist conservation ideology is being diminished under increased pressure from growing rural populations, especially in the Third World countries. This has led to a change in conservation ideology, recognising that in order to save the world's biodiversity, conservation has to be integrated with sustainable development¹. In other words, protected areas has to be managed in such a way as to ensure that future generations will be able to meet their resource needs.

This chapter discusses the rationale for integrating conservation and development. First, it explores the notion of "sustainable development" and "conservation" and how they are dependent on each other. Thereafter, the international context which set principles and guidelines for the integrating of conservation and development, is explored. The *World Conservation Strategy* (1980) was one of the first international documents² that emphasized the need to integrate conservation with sustainable development³. Furthermore, the *World Conservation Strategy* stressed the importance of linking protected area management with the socio-economic activities of local rural communities. This view was accepted by conservationist and protected area managers at the *1982 World Congress on National Parks*, in Bali (McNeely and Miller, 1984), the *1991 Workshop on Community Conservation*, in Hwange (GEM, 1993), and the *1992 Earth Summit's Agenda 21* (Keating, 1993). But for development to be successfully integrated with conservation objectives, it needed to be sustainable (Brundlandt Report, 1987). *Caring for the Earth* (IUCN/UNEP/WWF, 1991) extended the message to integrate conservation and development, and emphasized the need to be committed

¹Sustainable development as defined by *Our Common Future* (1987) - see Section 2.4.3.

²Report of Stockholm Conference in 1972 referred to "eco-development". Eco-development refers to types of economic development that takes ecological processes and patterns into account when deciding on the kind, location, size, intensity, of land-use changes (Nelson, 1994).

³It recognised that conservation and development is intrinsically linked, for the object of development is to provide for socio-economic welfare, and the object of conservation is to ensure the earth's capacity to sustain life and thus support development (IUCN, 1980).

to an ethic of sustainable living. The 1992 *Biological Diversity Convention*, which was signed at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, requires that signatories should amongst others adopt methods to conserve the variety of living species, and should ensure equitable sharing of the benefits derived from these.

Following that, national policies and objectives are examined to justify the local need for conservation-development. The *White Paper on Tourism* (Ministry for Administration and Tourism, 1992), *Caring for the Earth - South Africa* (Yeld, 1993), and *Satour's Policy Framework on Ecotourism Development* (1995) stressed the importance of equitable access to resources and community involvement in planning and decisionmaking. This view is echoed in the *Reconstruction and Development Programme* (ANC, 1994) as well as the *IDRC/ANC/COSATU/SACP/SANCO Mission on Environmental Policy* (NPB, 1994). *Integrated Environmental Management* (Department of Environment Affairs, 1992) is a planning tool used to ensure that the social costs of a development does not exceed the social benefits to society.

Finally, policies relating to the regional context of the Cathedral Peak development are highlighted and discussed. They consist of the Natal Parks Board *Neighbour Relations Programme* and *Integrated Conservation and Development Model* (NPB, 1994), as well as the KwaZulu Department of Nature Conservation's Policy Statement (KDNC, 1994). The Natal Parks Board (NPB) and the KwaZulu Department of Nature Conservation (KDNC) are in the process of merging, thus the relevance of discussing KDNC's policies and objectives. However, these policies focus more on the role of ecotourism⁴ as means to integrate conservation and development by encouraging local participation.

2.2 Rationale for Integrating Conservation and Development

Increased pressure from impoverished rural communities living adjacent to national parks and conservation areas, has forced conservation bodies to change their management strategies of the past and reroute them to the more sustainable option of incorporating conservation with development. A recent study on conservation and development, undertaken by the World Bank in cooperation with the World Wide Fund for Nature (Brandon and Wells, 1992), states that

⁴The Ecotourism Society (1990, in Satour, 1995) defines ecotourism: "includes purposeful travel to natural areas; to understand the cultural and natural history of the environment; taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem, while producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of natural resources beneficial to local people"

there are three main reasons why the examination of Incorporating Conservation and Development Projects⁵ (ICDP's) was undertaken. They are the following :

- ◆ Developing countries are currently giving the conservation of biodiversity a higher priority on their agendas and thus policy makers are looking for more cost effective and appropriate ways to achieve this goal
- ◆ There are an increasing number of ICDP's, due to the increasing amount of park management proposals involving local communities in the conservation of protected areas
- ◆ Failure to initiate and maintain effective approaches for the management of protected areas, will result in the rapid decline of critical natural ecosystems

Conservation areas are mostly located in remote areas surrounded by rural communities. Poverty-stricken rural areas with an ever increasing population, are dependent on their natural resource base for survival. There is thus an increasing quest for land, threatening the survival of "unused" conservation areas. Due to this increased land pressure, it is necessary for conservation systems to be developed to fulfill a set of realistic objectives and multiple functions in order to survive (McNeely and Miller, 1984). McNeely and Miller states that conservation plans which aims to be acceptable under the prevailing socio-economic conditions will have to be based on an appraisal of cultural, political, ecological and socio-economic factors that can balance resource policy with local human needs in both the short and the long term. Furthermore, communities would only have a stake in natural resources if they have access to and benefits from them.

Poverty reduces the ability of people to use resources effectively and sustainably⁶. It is thus important to stop degradation by beating poverty by a process of wide ranging sustainable development activities. Development is defined by the World Bank as being concerned with improving the well-being of people, eliminating poverty, and ensuring that people can reach their potential (World Bank, 1992). The broad definition of conservation by the World Conservation Strategy accepts conservation as "the management of human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations" (Garraat, 1984). Thus by

⁵Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (ICDP's) is a term referring to protected area management approach which attempts to address the needs of nearby communities by emphasizing local participation and by combining conservation and development (Brandon and Wells, 1993).

⁶This implies the utilisation of resources in such a way as to meet present needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs.

integrating conservation and development as part of the same process, conservation is linked to the economy of the region and will be seen as means to reach the end which is an improved quality of existence. This was reflected in the Annapurna Conservation Area Project⁷ in Nepal (Communication Consultants, 1991) which is often used as a role model for incorporating conservation and development. The underlying philosophy of the Annapurna Conservation Area Project was:

- ◆ Poverty stricken and hungry people are not interested in other people's concerns for conservation
- ◆ There is a need for an ecosystem approach which will be able to maintain the area in the long-term while accommodating increasing human use
- ◆ Conservation areas can serve as catalyst for socio-economic development through a system of imposing and recycling⁸ a users fee for visitors from rich and developed countries

This view on conservation is also reflected in the Campfire⁹ project in Zimbabwe, which uses conservation areas and specifically wildlife to promote rural development and community upliftment. Campfire's main objectives are to:

- ◆ change the perception of rural communities towards wildlife
- ◆ use wildlife to achieve sustainable rural development

The principle for best facilitating the importance of such an approach to resource use, and to make people understand both the advantages and limits of conservation, is through local participation (GEM, 1993). Local participation as a process is more than simply sharing in social and economic benefits. Local participation can be seen as “empowering people to mobilize their own capacities, be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage their resources, make decisions, and control the activities that influence their lives” (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Local participation must thus be seen as a process rather than a product, and the sustainability of a project will depend strongly on effective local participation.

⁷Refer to Chapter 3 for a more detailed discussion on the Annapurna Conservation Area Project in Nepal.

⁸“Recycling” refers to socio-economic benefits to local communities from tourism development in protected areas.

⁹Refer to Chapter 3 for a more detailed discussion on the Campfire programme in Zimbabwe.

The next section contains a description of international policies and objectives stipulating the need to integrate conservation and development.

2.2.1 International Context

This section deals with international policies and objectives, discussing these in chronological order of occurrence.

2.2.1.1 World Conservation Strategy

The 1980 World Conservation Strategy, a document prepared by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) in conjunction with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the then World Wildlife Fund¹⁰ (WWF), provides both an intellectual framework and a practical guide for the achievement of sustainable development through the conservation of living resources (IUCN, 1980). The need for such a strategy arises out of the continued depletion of the earth's resources which are essential for human survival and sustainable development. The Strategy sets out to:

- ◆ explain the contribution of living resource conservation to human survival and to sustainable development
- ◆ identify the priority conservation issues and the main requirements for dealing with them
- ◆ propose effective ways for achieving the Strategy's aim

The World Conservation strategy defines conservation as "the management of human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations". Conservation here is thus not only concerned with the preservation of natural resources, but also the sustainable utilisation, maintenance, restoration and enhancement of the natural environment. Sustainable development is defined as development that takes into account social, economic, and ecological factors; the living and the non-living resource base; and of the long term and short term advantages and disadvantages of alternative actions.

Furthermore, the World Conservation Strategy identifies three main objectives to achieve living resource conservation. These main objectives are to:

- ◆ maintain the essential ecological processes and life support systems

¹⁰World Wildlife Fund changed to World Wide Fund for Nature in 1986.

- ◆ preserve genetic diversity
- ◆ ensure the sustainable utilisation of species and ecosystems

However, the conservation of living resources is only one approach necessary to assure human survival and well-being. The integration of conservation and development is viewed as a critical factor in maintaining a resource base to meet people's needs of today without compromising the achievements of future generations. The mutual dependence of conservation and sustainable development is of special importance to the rural poor, who are dependent on the sustainable utilisation of natural resources and upliftment through economic development, for their survival. The belief that living resource conservation is a limited sector, and the consequent lack of integration between conservation and sustainable development is therefore one of the main obstacles to successful conservation. Furthermore, support for conservation will only grow through making people aware of the benefits of conservation, through environmental education and through delivering conservation-based development projects, especially to rural areas of developing countries.

The World Conservation Strategy sets out strategies for action on national and sub-national levels. Of particular importance to conservation-development are:

- ◆ Section 13, which recommends greater public participation in planning and decisionmaking concerning conservation
- ◆ Section 14, which suggests ways in which rural communities can conserve their living resources, as the essential basis of development they need

Public participation in the planning and decisionmaking process of conservation-development projects are seldom adequate (Section 13). Thus local community involvement in planning, management and decisionmaking is particularly important in rural development. This would result in more site-specific information concerning local needs and priorities, and would result in better project implementation, management and evaluation. Of particular concern is the environmental degradation in rural areas which results in the destruction of the natural resource base (Section 14). This destruction of the resource base calls for the sustainable utilisation of resources through conservation-based rural development. Furthermore, local involvement in resource management and community participation in the planning and management of protected areas would contribute to sustainable utilisation of resources. Benefits from conservation-based developments such as tourism would increase the community's commitment to protected areas.

2.2.1.2 The World Congress on National Parks, Bali

The 1982 World Congress of National Parks in Bali, was aimed at reassessing the role of national parks and protected areas. The Congress titled "*National Parks, Conservation and Development: The Role of Protected Areas in Sustaining Society*" followed the World Conservation Strategy's approach as seeing conservation as an integral part of sustainable development. Furthermore, if protected areas are to survive, they should help to ensure that social and economic development meet the real needs of society (McNeely, 1984). This would result in increased public support for conservation, and in particular for the conservation of national parks and protected areas.

The Congress recognised that the traditional approach to the management of national parks and protected areas paid little or no regard to the social and economic conditions of the surrounding areas (Miller, 1984). This resulted in socio-political conflicts along the borders of protected areas which increased local people's opposition towards conservation. Therefore, the Bali Declaration, confirmed by all participants of the Congress, recognised the importance of the economic, cultural and political context of protected areas. Furthermore, it stressed the need to increase local support for protected areas through measures such as education, revenue sharing, participation in decisionmaking, complementary development schemes adjacent to protected areas, and access to resources (McNeely and Miller, 1984).

The Congress proposed a series of ten recommendations called *The Bali Action Plan* (Miller, 1984), to guide and assist conservation agencies to a more effective management system, and to meet the objectives of protected area management. Of particular importance to integrating conservation and development are Objective 5 and Objective 10, which are discussed below.

Objective 5: To promote the linkage between Protected Area Management and Sustainable Development, proposed some of the following activities to achieve this objective:

- ◆ Develop and make available tools to survey the components and composition of protected areas to enable managers to critically examine the context for area conservation and thus enable them to associate conservation with development in adjacent lands
- ◆ Investigate and utilise the traditional wisdom of local communities affected by conservation measures. This will include the implementation of joint management arrangements between protected area authorities and the communities that have traditionally managed these resources

Objective 10: To Develop and Implement a Global Programme to Support Protected Area Management. This objective proposed that regional action programmes are designed and

implemented to ensure practical accomplishments in adjacent areas, by taking into account relevant cultural and institutional diversity and the necessary responsiveness to local needs.

2.2.1.3 Our Common Future - The World Commission on Environment and Development

The World Commission on the Environment (WCED) was set up to re-examine the critical environmental and development problems of the world and to formulate realistic proposals to solve them, and to ensure that human progress will be sustained through development without depleting the resources of future generations. Central to the Report is the notion of sustainable development which is defined here as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987).

Sustainable development requires meeting the basic needs of all people, and to alleviate poverty by providing people with the opportunity to fulfill their aspirations for a better life. But this can only be achieved if the poor have equitable access to the resources required to sustain development. However, this must be done without endangering the natural resource base that supports life. Furthermore, the Report states that the principle of equity will be enhanced by effective participation and decisionmaking.

Finally, the report stresses the need for species and ecosystem conservation. The diversity of species is necessary for the normal functioning of the biosphere as a whole. Furthermore, the network of protected areas in the world needs to be extended to the benefit of both conservation and development.

2.2.1.4 Caring for the Earth - A Strategy for Sustainable Living

Caring for the Earth (IUCN/UNEP/WWF, 1991) emphasizes and extends the message of the World Conservation Strategy in 1980. The aim of the document is to improve the condition of the world's people by defining two requirements: the commitment to an ethic of sustainable living, and to integrate conservation and development.

The Strategy proposes principles, and for each principle numerous actions to be implemented to achieve a sustainable society. One of these principles is the conservation of the Earth's vitality and diversity (Chapter 4). The actions suggested to conserve the Earth's vitality and diversity include the following:

- ◆ Complete and maintain a comprehensive system of protected areas (Action 4.9)
- ◆ Support management of wild renewable resources by local communities and increase incentives to conserve biological diversity (Action 4.14)

Furthermore, the Strategy recommends that to complete and maintain a comprehensive system of protected areas (Action 4.9), national systems concerning these protected areas should be governed by an explicit policy that:

- ◆ ensures effective participation of the local communities in the design, management and operation of protected areas
- ◆ maintains a sustainable economic return from protected areas and ensures that much of this goes to manage these areas and benefits local communities
- ◆ encourages indigenous local communities to establish and manage protected areas within a national system
- ◆ ensures that protected areas do not become isolated islands by providing for their integration in policies for the management of surrounding areas

Concerning local community support to the management of wild renewable resources (Action 4.14), the Strategy states that governments, development aid agencies, and conservation organisations should support projects that combine rural development with the sustainable use of wildlife resources and ecosystems. Conservation could further be encouraged by providing incentives to local communities such as the economic benefits from the sustainable utilisation of wildlife stocks.

Communities provide a readily accessible means for people to take socially valuable action as well as to express their needs and concerns. By empowering communities, local people can contribute to decisions that affect them and thus enable them to care for their own environment (Chapter 7). Actions which will enable communities to care for their own environment include:

- ◆ provide communities and individuals with secure access to resources and an equitable share in the management of them (Action 7.1)
- ◆ enhance participation in conservation and development (Action 7.3).

Access and the management of resources, and community participation in conservation and development have been emphasized in the previous documents discussed (see Section 2.4.1 to 2.4.3). However, Caring for the Earth stresses the need to integrate local communities needs with that of outside commercial interest. Furthermore, equitable participation in conservation and development is necessary to ensure that all parties have the opportunity to express their needs and priorities. This will not only encourage all parties to participate in conservation and development, but also allow individuals to contribute to management and decisionmaking...

2.2.1.5 The Workshop on Community Conservation, Hwange

The 1991 WWF Workshop on Community Conservation in Hwange, Zimbabwe, emphasized the need to involve local communities in the conservation of natural resources. The Workshop stressed the importance to empower local communities to enable them to participate in the planning and management of community conservation projects. Once more, the importance of local participation in decisionmaking and access to resources was stressed. The Workshop produced a list of ten principles to achieve active involvement of local communities in conservation, four of which are outlined below:

- ◆ Communities must be empowered through their direct involvement in decision-making, planning, implementation and evaluation
- ◆ Effective communication of information to all members of the community for decision-making and empowerment
- ◆ Communities must have appropriate control over access to, and responsibility for the wise and sustainable use of the natural resources
- ◆ There must be a clear understanding that benefits are inextricably linked to the sustainable utilisation of resources

(GEM, 1993)

2.2.1.6 The Earth Summit's Agenda 21

The Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 adopted a global plan of action to confront the worlds pressing needs. This action plan, called Agenda 12: Programme of Action for Sustainable Development, is an investment in future generations based on social, economical and environmental sustainable development and inter-generational equity (Keating, 1993).

In Section 2, on the Conservation and Management of Resources, Agenda 21 proposes certain measures to promote sustainable agricultural and rural development. Wildlife utilisation, fisheries, village-based light industries and tourism should be developed to prevent the rural poor from using marginal land. Traditional methods of agriculture, agroforestry, range and wildlife management which use, maintain or increase biodiversity should be encouraged to conserve biological diversity. Indigenous people and their communities should also share in the benefits derived from biodiversity. Furthermore, it states that indigenous people should participate in development decisions that affects them, as well as in the creation of protected areas such as national parks (Section 3: Strengthening the Role of Major Groups)(Keating, 1993).

2.2.1.4 The Biodiversity Convention

The 1992 Convention on Biological Diversity at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro, requires that signatories adopt methods to conserve the variety of living species, and that they ensure equitable sharing of the benefits from sustainable use of biological diversity. Although national sovereignty is recognised, the rights of local communities which have conserved biodiversity and whose cultural survival is linked to the conservation of biodiversity are not (Shiva 1992, in Wynberg 1993). However, to achieve the sustainable use of biological diversity, the Convention stresses the involvement of adjacent communities in the development and management of protected areas. South Africa's imminent ratification of the Biodiversity Convention will legally bind the government to develop "national strategies, plans or programmes" for the successful implementation of this convention (United Nations General Assembly, 1992).

This concludes¹¹ the section dealing with international policies and objectives promoting the integration of conservation and development. The next section contains a description of national context for integrating conservation and development.

¹¹Refer to Box 1: Summary of International Principles and Objectives.

BOX: 1 SUMMARY OF INTERNATIONAL POLICIES AND OBJECTIVES

POLICY, STRATEGY OR RELEVANT PRINCIPLES:

OBJECTIVE:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. World Conservation Strategy (1980) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintain the essential ecological processes and live support systems. • Preserve genetic diversity. • Ensure the sustainable utilisation of species and ecosystems. • Encourage public participation in planning and decision making concerning conservation. |
| 2. World Congress on National Parks, Bali (1982) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conserve living resources as basis for rural development. • Integrate conservation of protected areas with sustainable development in adjacent lands. • Investigate and utilise the traditional wisdom of local communities affected by conservation measures. • Response to relevant cultural and institutional diversity, and to local needs. |
| 3. Our Common Future (1987) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustainable development is development that "meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". • Ensure equitable access to the resources. • Support the need for species and ecosystem conservation. |
| 4. Caring for the Earth (1991) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure commitment to an ethic of sustainable living. • Integrate conservation and development. • Protect the Earth's vitality and diversity. • Complete and maintain a comprehensive system of protected areas. • Ensure equitable participation of local communities in planning and management, and sharing of benefits derived from protected areas. • Support access to and the management of wild renewable resources by local communities and increase incentives to conserve biological diversity. |
| 5. Workshop on Community Conservation, Hwange (1991) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empower local communities through process of participation and decisionmaking. • Support access to, and sustainable use of resources. • Link socio-economic benefits to conservation. |
| 6. Earth Summit's Agenda 21 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional methods of resource use should be encouraged in rural areas to conserve biodiversity. • Indigenous people should participate in planning and management of protected areas, and share in the benefits derived from them. • Encourage sustainable rural development and resource use on marginal lands. |
| 7. Biodiversity Convention | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure the conservation of biological diversity. • Ensure equitable sharing of benefits from sustainable use of biodiversity. • Encourage the involvement of local communities in the planning and management of protected areas. |

2.2.2 The National Context

This section provides a background description to national policies and objectives motivating the need to integrate conservation and development.

2.2.2.1 Principles of Integrated Environmental Management (IEM)

Integrated Environmental Management (Department of Environment Affairs, 1992) is used to 'ensure that the environmental consequences of development proposals are understood and adequately considered in the planning process'. The purpose of integrating the principles of IEM in any development process, is to mitigate against any negative impacts of the development, as well as to enhance the positive 'impacts' of the proposed development. Principles underpinning IEM include the following:

- ◆ informed decision-making
- ◆ the term 'environment' is used in a broad sense (including bio-physical, socio-economic, cultural, and political components of development)
- ◆ an open participatory approach in the planning of development proposals
- ◆ due consideration of alternative options
- ◆ an attempt to ensure that the social costs of any development be outweighed by the social benefits to society

These key principles can be distilled into efficiency, equity, and sustainability (Theron and Urquhart, 1994). The principle of equity would ensure an open, participatory approach, while efficiency would promote the due consideration of alternatives. Sustainability would meet the needs of present generations without compromising the resources available to future generations. The principles of efficiency, equity and sustainability is reflected in the following questions:

- ◆ Will the proposed development be efficient when all social costs are taken into account?
- ◆ Will the proposed development be fair in the way different groups and individuals are affected?
- ◆ Will the proposed development be sustainable and in the interest of future generations?

(Department of Environmental Affairs, 1992)

2.2.2.2 White Paper on Tourism

The *White Paper on Tourism* was formulated in 1992 to outline the Government's strategy on tourism, and to provide an action plan to implement this strategy (Ministry for Administration and Tourism¹², 1992). Tourism could provide a range of sustained benefits to communities through employment and economic development. Furthermore, South Africa's unique natural resources provides one with the opportunity to extend these benefits to rural areas through ecotourism.

The National Tourism Strategy realises that the conservation and wise use of environmental resources of South Africa is a precondition for achieving its mission (Section 3.2.2). It also supports community involvement through effective stakeholder participation, and by providing equitable access to resources, market opportunities, and socio-economic benefits (Section 3.2.3). Furthermore, it encourages local participation in tourism development process, thus stimulating the development of new facilities and attractions in the underdeveloped regions of the country (Section 4.1).

2.2.2.3 Caring for the Earth - South Africa: A Strategy for Sustainable Living

Caring for the Earth - South Africa (Yeld, 1993) is a follow-up to *Caring for the Earth*, the parent document which was published in 1991 by the IUCN, UNEP, and the WWF (see Section 2.4.4). The South African Strategy sets out a suggested series of priority actions across a broad spectrum of human activities, adapted to South Africa's unique history of resource exploitation and its own political framework. It states that "the philosophy of sustainable development offers this country the best prospects for a new, just, socially equitable and environmentally sound society" (Yeld, 1993).

The Strategy emphasizes the principle of providing communities with access to resources. Furthermore, it stresses the importance of local participation in conservation and development process (Principle 7: Enable communities to care for their own environments). It also encourages communities to benefit from ecological sound management of wildlife resources, as well as to increase the incentives offered to conserve biological diversity (Part 2: Land).

2.2.2.4 The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) is a comprehensive socio-economic policy framework which has been adopted by the Government of National Unity to transform and develop South Africa's post-apartheid society (ANC, 1994). Although the RDP is a

¹²Tourism matters were shifted in 1994 from the previous government's Ministry for Administration and Tourism (1992), to the current government's Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism.

national framework, the role of provincial and local government is crucial in order to achieve the successful implementation of the programme. The basic principles of the RDP include:

- ◆ an integrated and sustainable programme
- ◆ a people-driven process
- ◆ the democratisation of South Africa

(ANC, 1994)

Furthermore, the RDP consists of 5 major policy programmes to ensure successful implementation, through meeting all objectives. These policy programmes include:

- ◆ meeting basic needs
- ◆ building the economy
- ◆ democratising the state and society

(ANC, 1994)

In meeting the basic needs, the RDP is committed to a programme of sustainable development (Section 2.2.1). It aims to alleviate poverty by improving the quality of life of all South Africans through a process of empowerment. The RDP is also committed to grassroots, bottom-up development which is owned and driven by communities and their representative institutions (Section 2.2.3). Furthermore, people must have equitable access to natural resources, and a participatory decision-making process which would empower communities to manage their natural environment (Section 2.10.2). This would include the participation of communities in management and decisionmaking concerning wildlife conservation and the related tourism benefits (Section 2.10.6.2).

The RDP recognises South Africa's tourism potential and the role it can play in building the economy (Section 4.5.4). Tourism based on South Africa's cultural and natural resources, such as ecotourism, could create sustainable employment and provide opportunities for black entrepreneurship (Section 4.5.4). Furthermore, community involvement in tourism projects should be encouraged, and the RDP stresses the importance of partnerships between local communities and other agencies.

Democratising the state and society emphasizes the importance of the empowerment of people through participation in planning and decisionmaking (Section 5). Through empowerment,

communities will be mobilised and will thus be able to manage and be actively involved their own development process.

The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development which was published in November 1994, aims to translate the 1994 RDP "Base Document" into a set of concrete implementation strategies. The proposed RDP-related programmes of the Department of Environment Affairs and Tourism are included in this White Paper, and these programmes are underpinned by three policy objectives:

- ◆ protect and sustain use of the environment for the benefit of all
- ◆ integrate environmental objectives with reconstruction and development plans
- ◆ optimise socio-economic benefits of tourism in an environmentally sustainable manner

(Baseline Document)

2.2.2.5 The IDRC/ANC/COSATU/SACP/SANCO Mission on Environmental Policy

The Mission on Environmental Policy (1994), was drawn up by some of the major political role players in South Africa. The aim of this document was to unite their views on dealing with issues concerning the environment. The mission reinforced the RDP theme in its draft document on the Environment. The document recognised that:

- ◆ protected areas have the potential to stimulate rural development without compromising their prime ecological and educational functions
- ◆ communities must gain direct economic benefits from wildlife and other natural resources
- ◆ by broadening a community's resource base, it can become more self-sufficient and be buffered against drought and other hardships, reducing its dependence on government support
- ◆ ecotourism is capable of providing a major source of added revenue to conservation bodies for environmental management and conservation purposes

(Natal Parks Board, 1994)

Further, the Mission recommends that:

- ◆ sustainable development of protected areas should balance the goals of nature conservation with the need for local and national development, chiefly in the area of tourism
- ◆ future tourism strategies should link tourism to rural economic development and enable communities to gain direct benefits, and to own and operate their own tourist facilities
- ◆ formally protected area, biosphere reserves, and multi-use zones should be established as part of an integrated conservation and rural development strategy
- ◆ employment in nature reserves should be expanded by developing labour intensive ecotourism

(Natal Parks Board, 1994)

2.2.2.6 Satour's Ecotourism Policy Framework

Satur's Policy Framework on Ecotourism Development (1995) promotes an integrated approach to ecotourism development which would provide tangible benefits to local people whilst protecting the environment. This approach recognises the need to uplift rural communities through empowerment and equitable access to resources. In addition, protected areas are in dire need of funds to sustain effective environmental management. The Policy Framework thus proposes the following principles as being fundamental to the successful development of ecotourism:

- ◆ an integrated approach to ecotourism development which recognises the biophysical environment, socio-cultural environment, and the ecotourism industry as interdependent entities
- ◆ improving the quality of life of those living adjacent to areas of particular ecological or cultural value
- ◆ sustainable management of the resource base in order to ensure maximum socio-economic benefits
- ◆ involving all interested and affected parties in a participatory planning process which encourages joint decisionmaking, responsibility and accountability, and sharing of benefits

- ◆ promoting sustainable and participatory environmental management

(Satour, 1995)

This concludes¹³ the section on national policies and objectives. The next section will discuss various policies and objectives of regional conservation organisations.

BOX: 2. SUMMARY OF NATIONAL POLICIES AND OBJECTIVES

POLICY, STRATEGY OR OBJECTIVE:	RELEVANT PRINCIPLES:
1. Integrated Environmental Management (1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informed decision-making. • An open participatory approach in the planning of development proposals. • Due consideration of alternative options • Ensure that the social costs of any development be outweighed by the social benefits to society.
2. White Paper on Tourism (1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support the sustainable use of resources. • Ensure equitable access to resources, market opportunities, and socio-economic benefits. • Encourage local participation in their development process.
3. Caring for the Earth - South Africa (1993)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local communities should have equitable access to resources. • Support local participation in conservation and development. • Ensure ecological sustainable management of wildlife resources. • Increase incentives to conserve biological diversity.
4. Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The RDP is committed to a programme of sustainable development. • Empower local communities through process of institution building. • Local communities must have equitable access to resources. • Support participatory decisionmaking. • Ensure effective protection and the sustainable use of the environment.
5. IDRC / ANC / COSATU / SACP / SANCO Mission on the Environment (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognise the potential of protected areas to stimulate sustainable rural development. • Communities must gain direct economic benefits from natural resources. • Broadening rural communities resource base to become more self-sufficient. • Ecotourism could provide benefits for conservation and environmental management.
6. Satour's Ecotourism Policy Framework (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Upliftment of local rural communities through empowerment and access to resources. • Integrated approach to ecotourism development. • Sustainable management of natural resources. • Participatory planning process and sharing of benefits. • Participatory and sustainable environmental management.

¹³Refer to Box 2: Summary of National Principles and Objectives.

2.2.3 The Regional Context

The following section deals with regional policies and objectives. Firstly, the Natal Parks Board's (NPB) Neighbour Relations Programme and Integrated Conservation and Development Model will be discussed, and there-after the KwaZulu Department of Nature Conservation's (KDNC) policies and objectives.

2.2.3.1 The Natal Parks Board

The Natal Parks Board (NPB) is a statutory conservation body responsible for the conservation and management of protected areas which falls under their jurisdiction. The NPB's Mission is:

"To conserve the wildlife resources of Natal and the ecosystems and processes on which they depend, and to assist all other public groups in ensuring the wise use of the biosphere".

(NPB, 1994)

In order to achieve its mission, the NPB has identified four main strategies to implement this goal:

- ◆ to achieve acceptance amongst the people of South Africa, and in particular those in KwaZulu/Natal, of the economic and aesthetic value of conservation
- ◆ to increase the NPB's contribution to achieve social stability through economic stability in KwaZulu/Natal. This includes the need to promote and develop ecotourism, and the utilisation of protected areas as catalyst for rural development
- ◆ to ensure the continuation of adequate funding for the NPB's activities
- ◆ to broaden support for the NPB as the appropriate conservation authority for KwaZulu/Natal

(Baseline Document, 1995)

However, the NPB, the KwaZulu Department of Nature Conservation (KDNC), and the former Natal Provincial Administration Department of Nature Conservation are in the process of merging to form one conservation body. Thus, this conservation body will have a new mission statement and operate under a new provincial ordinance (Baseline Document, 1995).

A. The Natal Parks Board Neighbour Relations Policy

The Natal Parks Board Neighbour Relations Policy was developed in 1992, in an attempt to reassess their management style of protected areas. Criticism was levelled at the NPB for their lack of involving the local community in the benefits of protected areas. The NPB launched

their Neighbour Relation Programme which is "an extensive series of programmes to make conservation in general and protected areas in particular more relevant to poor communities". The Neighbour Relations Programme has a five point approach to involve neighbouring communities in their concurrent activities in protected areas:

- ◆ creating trust
- ◆ developing environmental awareness
- ◆ facilitating access to material and spiritual benefits of protected areas
- ◆ fostering the economic and social development of neighbouring communities
- ◆ training NPB staff for effective participation in neighbour related activities

Three key strategies to make conservation and protected areas more relevant to neighbouring communities are:

- ◆ to encourage participation in protected area management and planning by creating Neighbour Forums
- ◆ to foster economic and social development thus contributing to an improved quality of life
- ◆ to enhance environmental awareness

(NPB, 1994)

B. The Integrated Conservation and Development Model

The NPB developed an Integrated Conservation and Development Model for the implementation of RDP projects in KwaZulu-Natal. They based it on the belief that conservation that involves community participation could provide substantial and sustainable development opportunities, particular in the adjacent impoverished rural areas. The model presents the role of the conservation agency as either the catalyst of rural development if their is a sufficient resource base, or to facilitate rural development by using external funds from either government or development agencies. The NPB states further that by "approaching resource use and development in terms of equity, ecological sustainability, and economic efficiency", they would be able to unlock development opportunities and benefits to the region. The direct benefits of incorporating conservation and development include:

- ♦ the protection of biodiversity and life-supporting systems
- ♦ a diversity of employment opportunities in conservation and ecotourism activities
- ♦ access to natural products, which are made available at sustainable levels to neighbouring communities

(NPB, 1994)

2.2.3.2 KwaZulu Department of Nature Conservation

The KwaZulu Department of Nature Conservation (KDNC), formerly known as the KwaZulu Bureau of Natural Resources, is responsible for the conservation and management of protected areas (other than NPB areas) in northern KwaZulu/Natal and Maputoland. KDNC's mission to "promote the integrity of the environment of KwaZulu/Natal" recognises the need to integrate rural communities as a vital component in the conservation of natural resources (KDNC, 1994a). This would be achieved through their "Policy of Sharing", which recognises that "the environment and its people are intrinsically linked and that the one cannot be preserved without impacting on the environment" (KDNC, 1994b). It further aims to benefit local communities through equitable access to resources as well as revenue sharing¹⁴ (KDNC, 1994a).

The KDNC's Policy Statement on Ecotourism stresses that "any development of a protected area should be to the benefit of the host community while having the minimum acceptable impact on the environment" (KDNC, 1994b). The Policy Statement proposes that ecotourism development should be undertaken according to the following principles:

- ♦ ecotourism should encourage partnerships i.e. between the host community, the private sector and the conservation authority
- ♦ ecotourism must create economic opportunities for local communities
- ♦ ecotourism development should be compatible with protected area conservation objectives
- ♦ ecotourism should be sensitive to local cultural conditions
- ♦ ecotourism should enhance the local community by utilising local skills and by providing for the training and transference of skills

(KDNC, 1994b)

¹⁴KDNC invests 25 percent of the revenue generated by tourist facilities into the communities living adjacent to these facilities (KDNC, 1994a).

This concludes¹⁵ the section dealing with regional policies and objectives.

BOX: 3. SUMMARY OF REGIONAL POLICIES AND OBJECTIVES

POLICY, STRATEGY OR OBJECTIVE:	RELEVANT PRINCIPLES:
1. Natal Parks Board - Neighbour Relations Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Participation in protected area management and planning.• Improving the quality of life of rural communities through socio-economic development.• Enhance environmental awareness.• Equitable access to material and spiritual benefits of protected areas
2. Natal Parks Board - Integrated Conservation and Development Model.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Integrating conservation of protected areas with sustainable rural development.• Community participation in conservation and development.• Equitable, sustainable and efficient management and access to resources.• Protection of biodiversity.• Employment opportunities to local communities through conservation and ecotourism development.
3. Kwazulu Department of Nature Conservation Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Integrate conservation and rural development.• Equitable access to natural resources.• Benefits to local community through revenue sharing and training.• Protection of biodiversity.• Emphasize the need for partnerships in ecotourism development.• Ecotourism should be compatible with conservation objectives.• Ecotourism should promote local economic development and utilise local skills.• Ecotourism should be sensitive to local cultural conditions.

2.3 Conclusion

The international, national and regional principles and objectives discussed in this chapter all suggests that protected areas should play a role in sustaining rural communities. This implies not only sustainable utilisation of natural resources, but also effective local participation in planning and management of protected areas. But the integration of conservation and sustainable development should not be at the expense of the conservation of biological diversity. Thus, the successful integration of conservation and sustainable development would depend on local community involvement to ensure equitable sharing of socio-economic benefits, and to provide incentives to conserve and maintain essential ecological processes and life support systems.

¹⁵Refer to Box 3: Summary of Regional Policies and Objectives.

There are several important principles and objectives embodied in the international, national and regional policies and strategies discussed¹⁶. However, there are seven core principles underpinning all of these. They are:

- ◆ the conservation of biological diversity
- ◆ the need for sustainable development
- ◆ effective local participation in planning, management and decisionmaking
- ◆ local community empowerment through the process of institution building
- ◆ sustainable utilisation and equitable access to resources
- ◆ response to local socio-economic, cultural and political context
- ◆ link socio-economic benefits to conservation

These core principles encompass all other principles and objectives discussed. For example, conserving biodiversity would ensure a comprehensive system of protected areas which would conserve important ecological systems and wildlife species. The need for sustainable development in rural areas would encourage appropriate land use in marginal lands to reduce environmental degradation. Responding to the local context would ensure site-specific development which would enable local communities to be more self-sufficient. Thus, these core principles would provide a basis for the successful implementation of conservation and development projects.

The next chapter will illustrate ways in which these core principles can be operationalised so to ensure the successful integration of conservation and development. First, it will discuss different approaches to protected area management. Thereafter, a brief examination of the essential components of rural development follows. Finally, the application of the core principles in integrating conservation and rural development will be illustrated by case studies.

¹⁶Refer to Box 4: Summary of Key Policies and Objectives

BOX: 4. SUMMARY OF KEY PRINCIPLES AND OBJECTIVES

1.	Conservation of Biodiversity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Protect the Earth's biological diversity. • Maintain the essential ecological processes and live support systems. • Complete and maintain a comprehensive system of protected areas. • Increase incentives to conserve biological diversity. • Enhance environmental awareness.
2.	Rural Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage sustainable rural development and resource use on marginal lands. • Broaden the resource base of rural communities to become more self-sufficient. • Uplift of rural communities through process of empowerment. • Improving the quality of life in rural areas through sustainable socio-economic development. • Conserve living resources as the basis for rural development. • Integrate conservation of protected areas with sustainable development in adjacent lands.
3.	Integrating Conservation and Development	
4.	Participation and Decisionmaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indigenous people should participate in planning and management of protected areas, and share in the benefits derived from them. • An open participatory approach in the planning and decisionmaking of development proposals. • Empower local communities through institution building. • Response to relevant cultural and institutional diversity, and to local needs. • Due consideration of alternative options. • Emphasize the need for partnerships.
5.	Resource Utilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local communities must have equitable access to material and spiritual benefits of protected areas
5.1	Natural Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure the sustainable management and utilization of species and ecosystems by local communities, and increase incentives to conserve biological diversity.
5.2	Human Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional methods of resource use should be encouraged in rural areas to conserve biodiversity. • Investigate and utilize the traditional wisdom of local communities affected by conservation measures.
6.	Distribution of Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure the equitable sharing of benefits from sustainable use of biodiversity. • Ensure that the social costs of any development be outweighed by the social benefits to society. • Link socio-economic benefits to conservation. • Increase benefits to local community through revenue sharing and training.
7.	Ecotourism Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ecotourism should provide benefits for, and be compatible with conservation and environmental management objectives. • Ensure an integrated approach to ecotourism development. • Ecotourism should promote local economic development and utilize local skills. • Ecotourism should be sensitive to local cultural conditions. • Encourage partnerships in ecotourism development.

Chapter 3

Integrating Conservation and Rural Development

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CHAPTER 3 INTEGRATING PROTECTED AREA CONSERVATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

"To the rural producer, can readily seem to be yet another form of development. Its priorities are set from outside his community, in the priorities of national conservation agencies or by international organisations. Work is often funded from overseas by specialist conservation agencies who employ their own visiting experts. They carry their own assumptions, stay short periods, and suffer from the same biases as their economic and engineering counterparts. Repeatedly, such expert missions identify the current actions of local people as a threat to the survival of some feature conservation interest".

(Adams, 1990)

Environmental degradation caused by the consumption of natural resources, places increasing pressure on the biological diversity of the world. Simultaneously, increasing population growth, which inter-alia results in the growing impoverishment of people especially in rural areas, calls for drastic measures to promote the development of income-generating opportunities. Most conservation areas are surrounded by impoverished rural areas, and there is an urgent need to link the conservation objectives of protected areas to the components of rural development. There is a need for rural development projects which are not only ecologically and economically sustainable, but also conserve the ecosystem of the adjacent protected area (Brandon and Wells, 1992). This need resulted in an IUCN's initiative, Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (ICDP's), which aims to promote social and economic development amongst communities adjacent to protected-area boundaries (ibid). The ICDP approach attempts to ensure the conservation of biological diversity by reconciling the management of protected areas with the social and economic needs of local people. This will not only lead to improved living standards of communities adjacent to protected areas, but will also improve the neighbour relationship between conservation agencies and local communities, which could lead to strengthened park management. The importance of good neighbour relations and the sustainable use of resources was also stressed at the Group for Environmental Monitoring conference on "People and Parks" (GEM, 1993), which stated the need of conservationists to enter an apolitical alliance with their neighbours to ensure the future of conservation areas from which both benefit.

The key to successful conservation and development projects are to ensure effective community involvement. Local participation is described by Cernea (1991, in Brandon, 1993) as "giving people more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities. It means empowering people to mobilise their own capacities, be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage the resources, make decisions, and control the activities that affect their lives". Community involvement could be strengthened through institution building.

Institutions should be demand driven and functional. In addition, they should be accountable and reflect the real needs of the people they represent. This approach suggests that for success, developments must not only be researched based, but locally conceived and initiated, flexible, participatory, and based on a clear understanding of the local socio-economic and political conditions (Adams, 1990).

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the different approaches to and objectives of integrating conservation and rural development. Firstly, a brief examination of the different approaches and management styles of protected areas. This includes traditional parks, buffer zones, and multi-use areas. Thereafter, the author sets out to highlight some of the main principles underpinning rural development. This is followed by an examination of the different components necessary to successfully integrate conservation and rural development. These components include:

- ◆ information gathering
- ◆ institution building
- ◆ the role participatory organisations in conservation and development projects
- ◆ the need for partnerships
- ◆ resource utilisation
- ◆ the importance of linking benefits to conservation
- ◆ monitoring and evaluation

The principles and actions contained in each of these components, in conjunction with the subsequent discussion in Chapter 4, will then be used to generate a Checklist in Chapter 5. This Checklist would provide guidelines to maximise community participation in ecotourism developments as to ensure the successful integration of protected area conservation and rural development.

3.2 Protected-areas management

The establishment and conservation of protected areas is of utmost importance for the preservation of the biological diversity so that a wide range of species and ecosystems can better meet the material and cultural needs of present and future generations (Fuggle and Rabie, 1992). The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN, 1980) states that countries should aim to conserve 10 percent of their surface area as protected areas.

Approaches to conservation have shifted considerably during the last decade, from the "preservation" philosophy centered around "anti-people" and "anti-development", to the current situation where protected areas are recognised as offering major sustainable benefits to society on the condition that human intervention is conducted in harmony with the retention of biological diversity (ibid).

Local communities living adjacent to protected areas are now recognised as major role players in the conservation of protected areas and this view is reflected in the World Conservation Strategy, with the primary goal of the wise maintenance and sustainable use of all Earth's natural resources (IUCN, 1980). Furthermore, the role of protected areas in eco-development and the protection of natural and cultural heritage forms part of the IUCN's primary objectives for protected areas (Fuggle and Rabie, 1992).

The classification of protected areas into a limited number of categories will result in more effective and coordinated approach to management. It could facilitate appropriate management decisions in controlling protected area use and enable that appropriate authority status to be shifted away from a single national authority to provincial authority, non-government agencies, or even private landowners (ibid). This was the aim of the IUCN in drawing up a revised classification system for protected areas. The ten proposed categories initially proposed were reduced to five protected area management categories at the 1990 IUCN General Assembly held in Perth (Fuggle and Rabie, 1992). According to these categories, a South African classification system was drawn up by the Council for the Environment as "The South African classification of terrestrial and marine protected areas" (Council for the Environment, 1991)(Fuggle and Rabie, 1992). The IUCN's Category 2 (National parks and equivalent reserves) management objectives state that national parks should contribute to sustaining society by: "maintaining essential ecological processes and life-support systems, including large ecosystems and watersheds; preserving genetic and biological diversity; taking into account social and economic considerations, as well as ecological integrity, and providing spiritual, intellectual, social and economic opportunities through tourism" (ibid). This reflects the transition from "traditional parks" management towards a more equitable and sustainable role for national parks and protected.

The following section discusses the different approaches to protected area planning and management, progressing from traditional parks to buffer zones and multi-use areas. This is followed by a brief description of resource management and utilisation in protected areas.

3.2.1 Planning and Management of Protected Areas

According to McNeely (1984) relationships and linkages between conservation areas can be divided into two broad groups:

- ♦ physical relationships with environment
- ♦ human relationships, which include social, economic and cultural matters

It is thus important, in the planning of protected areas, to consider issues beyond the boundaries of the protected areas itself. The planning of protected areas must take place within the broad regional framework, and should include by consultation with other land planning agencies and affected people, ensuring an overall pattern of well balanced land-use (McNeely, 1984). Such an integrated planning approach would provide the framework and structure for managing conservation and development conflicts. Conservation planning must take into account all sectors of the economy and plan accordingly.

3.2.1.1 Traditional Parks

The traditional methods of nature conservation evolved out of the concern of colonial governments over the exploitation of their "possessions". This led to the establishment of national parks and protected areas by bureaucratic governments as areas strictly protecting natural resources and these areas often promoted white tourism (Adams, 1990; and McNeely, 1984). The establishment of traditional Parks has often been associated with forced removals and exclusion of local people from use of natural resources. These parks were seen as the products of colonial governments imposing anti-poaching laws to stop hunting and denying people's access to resources such as grazing for cattle, medicinal plants, firewood and thatching grass (Hanekom and Liebenberg, 1990). People were stripped from the right to visit their ancestors' graves inside parks, and these areas were fenced off and controlled by game rangers with guns (GEM, 1993). Management of these parks has been orientated towards enforcement and has been generally unsympathetic to the needs of the local population. In South Africa, these experiences lead to the common complaint that "animals are seen as more important than people" (GEM, 1993).

An approach that has been taken in order to provide some benefit to local people living adjacent to parks, or those people that had to be moved in order to establish the park, is that of substitution and compensation. The aim here is to compensate the local people for the economic losses caused by the establishment of the protected area, by providing substitutes for resources which have been denied, or to provide an alternative source of income through new economic activities (Brandon and Wells, 1992). This approach aims to provide an incentive, aimed at potential agents of park depletion, to stop the exploitation of natural resources within the Parks borders. Compensation could be cash payments, goods or services in exchange for an agreement by local people to relinquish their former rights to access and to respect conservation goals and objectives. Substitutes, on the other hand, consist of direct and indirect substitution. Direct substitution is targeted at a specific resource, e.g. if the area was used as a source of firewood it could be substituted by providing woodlots outside the park boundaries.

If direct substitutes cannot be provided, then an indirect substitute for the loss of income could be employment opportunities inside the park. The problem with substitution and compensation is, however, that there is no perceived link between conservation and the benefits derived from these. This would thus not necessarily change people's attitudes towards conservation and protected areas.

3.2.1.2 Buffer zones

The UNESCO Man and Biosphere Programme proposed buffer zones as key components to biosphere reserve models. A biosphere reserve¹ consists of a core protected area (no resource extraction) linked with surrounding land, thus effectively increasing protected land which in turn significantly increase the range and effectiveness of conservation management in these regions. Buffer zones are defined as “areas adjacent to protected areas, on which land-use is partially restricted to give an added layer of protection to the protected area itself while providing valued benefits to neighbouring rural communities” (Brandon and Wells, 1992). The emphasis is on protecting the reserve with the benefit to the community as a secondary function.

Buffer zones usually consist of narrow strips of land in which the sustainable use of resources is permitted. The aim is to establish a transition zone between the protected area and the surrounding land and also to provide the local communities with access to the resources of the land, thus taking the pressure off the core protected area. Although sound in theory, the practical implementation and management of buffer zones could be problematic. Although it enlarges the physical conservation area and thus increases the effective area of natural habitat, the social benefits of sustainable use of natural resources are difficult to determine. Furthermore, if the sustainable exploitation limits could be determined, it would be difficult to ensure that these limits are not exceeded, except by enforcement. Brandon and Wells (1992) stated that one of the most serious problems with buffer zones is that the limited benefit derived by the sustainable use would not change local people's perceptions and attitudes towards conservation and thus not enhance the conservation of biological diversity.

3.2.1.3 Multi-use areas

Multi-use areas developed out of the notion that conservation and development must be seen as being part of the same process (Hanks, 1993). This concept could also expand the jurisdiction of traditional conservation authorities to areas outside the protected areas. This provides the conservation authority with an opportunity to use conservation as a vehicle to create economic opportunities for rural communities.

¹Biosphere reserves is a different concept to multi-use areas. Multi-use areas such as the Richtersveld National Park are managed and utilised as a unit, where biosphere reserves includes a core protected area where no resource extraction is allowed.

The concept of a multi-use area can be illustrated by the Richtersveld National Park. The Richtersveld National Park was proclaimed in 1991 after a period of intense negotiations between the National Parks Board and the local inhabitants of the area. The local community, including the pastoralist farmers of the area, insisted on being involved in a negotiation process preceding the proclamation of the Park. This resulted in the integration of local interests in the conservation and management of the Park. The Richtersveld Park is now managed jointly by the National Parks Board and the Richtersveld community. Part of the agreement is the acceptance of the area as grazing land for the stock farmers, provided they continue to use the area in a sustainable way (SPP, 1990).

According to Brandon and Wells (1992), multiple-use areas have an advantage over the traditional Parks system due to the fact that they are more supportive of local communities. Furthermore, the establishment of a single management authority simplifies the management of the area.

3.2.2 Resource Management

Conservation philosophy has shifted from one of the preservation of resources to the sustainable utilisation of resources in such a way so as to benefit the protection of biological diversity. Due to previous conservation strategies, people living adjacent to protected areas have been deprived of access to the natural resources they depend on. Long-term resource survival depends on winning the support and understanding of neighbouring communities for conservation, by giving them access to these natural resources (Communication Consultants, 1991). This can only be done if there is a clear understanding of how local people depend on the resources of the area for their livelihood.

The Annapurna Conservation Area Project in Nepal is based on the multiple land-use concept and the traditional methods of resource utilisation. The Annapurna inhabitants are dependent on the local forests as over 90 percent of their energy needs are met by forests (Gurung and De Coursey, 1994). The increase of tourism in the region has upset the delicate ecological balance in the region, resulting in environmental degradation and a decrease in forest habitats. This necessitated a different approach to resource management, doing away with expensive and unsuccessful government management schemes, and replacing them with much more effective indigenous management schemes. The local people were allowed to remain within and around the Annapurna Conservation Area. Tourism, farming, forestry and biodiversity conservation are carried out jointly in the area, which is possible through sustainable utilisation and management of the natural resources (ibid).

Natural resources could also be exploited in an unsustainable way, which will result in the degradation of the protected area. This could result from the extensive or over-use of, e.g. wildlife and fishing resources. Overexploitation of resources could also occur when the

amount of tourists exceeds the carrying capacity of the region. The carrying capacity of an area can be defined as “the estimated level of visitor-use an area can accommodate with high levels of satisfaction for visitors and few negative impacts on resources” (McNeely and Thersell, 1987). Carrying capacity can be evaluated in both ecological and aesthetic terms. The ecological carrying capacity has been reached when changes occur in animal behaviour, when the number of animals is reduced, when there is a decline in plant communities or species, erosion of paths, degradation of water quality and many other environmental indicators that show the symptoms of degradation. Ecological carrying-capacity is also interlinked with the aesthetic carrying-capacity of an area. Tourists to protected areas usually seek wilderness experiences and the degradation of the environment will automatically lead to a reduced wilderness experience (Boo, 1990).

This concludes the section dealing with different approaches to protected area management². The next section gives an overview of the main components of rural development.

BOX 5. SUMMARY OF DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO PROTECTED AREA MANAGEMENT

APPROACH TO PROTECTED AREA MANAGEMENT	MAIN CHARACTERISTICS AND OBJECTIVES
1. Traditional parks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Areas established to strictly protect natural resources and often associated with the promotion of tourism • Often associated with forced removals and exclusion of local people from use of natural resources • Management of these parks orientated towards enforcement • Local communities excluded from participation of planning and management of park • Local people benefitted from the establishment of the park through <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - compensation; or - substitution
2. Multi-use areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed out of the notion that conservation and development must be seen as the same process. • Provides conservation authority to use conservation as a vehicle for socio-economic development. • Involve local communities in planning and management of protected areas. • Establishment of single management authority simplifies the management of the area. • Provide local communities with access to, and sustainable use of natural resources.

²Refer to Box 5: Summary of Different Approaches to Protected Area Management.

3. Buffer zones

- Buffer zones are a key component of biosphere reserves.
- Buffer zones are areas adjacent to protected area where land use is partially restricted to ensure an added layer of protection whilst providing benefits to neighbouring community.
- Practical application problematic:
 - difficult to determine sustainable off-take of resources to linear shape;
 - limited benefits derived from sustainable use would not change people's attitudes towards conservation.

3.3 Main Components of Rural Development

Rural areas are the most affected by poverty in South Africa. At least 11 million people are surviving below the minimum living-level in rural areas (ANC, 1994). This results in environmental degradation caused by overcrowding, soil erosion, lack of water, overgrazing and a lack of fuel wood. Without these basic life support systems, rural people face struggle to survive (Cooper, 1994).

The purpose of the following discussion is not to give a detailed analysis of rural development, but merely to highlight some important aspects of sustainable rural development.

3.3.1 Participation, decision-making and institution-building

Local involvement in the development process enables communities to articulate their own needs and priorities (GEM, 1993). Child and Peterson (1991) argue that local communities must be involved in decision-making, in applying management techniques and in the transfer of information to village level. They state further that "if individuals or communities simply remain passive bystanders in a process that takes away benefits from them, they will always remain disadvantaged and dependent on handouts." The sustainability of a project also depends strongly on effective participation, which will ensure sustained benefits in the long term. Effective participation means informed decision-making which would result in greater accountability on the part of decisionmakers.

Participation in the decision-making process empowers people to have a say in developments that encroach on their living space and their resources (Ledger, 1992). An effective way to encourage participation and decision-making, and to empower local communities, is through institution-building. Institution-building can be defined as, "the creation of procedures for democratic decision-making at the local level and the involvement of local people in these procedures to the extent that they come to regard them as their normal way of conducting affairs" (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Rural developments with independent management units outside the local administrative structures might produce benefits in a shorter time than normal, but that would be at the expense of much-needed, long-term institution-building.

3.3.2 Income-earning opportunities, training and the provision of social services

In a 1990 World Bank survey on poverty, it was stated that the two overwhelming determinants of poverty are the lack of money earning opportunities and the capacity to respond to them. The survey stated that where “households are confronted with opportunities to use their labour in good purpose, and where household members are skilled, educated and healthy, minimum standards of living are assured and poverty is eliminated. Where such opportunities are not present and where access to social services is severely limited, living standards are unacceptably low.” The need is thus to encourage entrepreneurial development, to provide employment and to improve access to resources in order to reduce domestic expenditure. This could only be realised through the acquisition of skills through training and education: training not only to improve the capability of individuals, but also to acquire the skill to improve the effectiveness and productivity of their institutions. Education will also result in better living conditions through access to and the improvement of social services.

3.3.3 Access to land and the sustainable use of resources

Access to land is one of the most basic needs to rural dwellers. There is a need for a comprehensive rural development programme in South Africa, which must raise incomes and productivity on land through the promotion of non-agricultural activities (ANC, 1994). Development efforts should also address the special position of women, for they make up the majority of small-scale farmers and bear the brunt of poverty, overcrowding and hunger in rural areas (ANC, 1994).

The rich biological diversity of South Africa is eminent in the vast array of its uses amongst its people. More than 100 plant species are utilised as an important dietary supplement to the starchy staple diet common to many communities, and a major buffer against drought, seasonal famine and unemployment. Furthermore, over 700 plant species are utilised for traditional medicine preparation, of which 80 percent of rural people still rely on (Wynberg, 1995a). Increasing population pressure results in environmental degradation of existing areas through overgrazing and resource exploitation. There is a need for environmental rehabilitation based on sustainable resource utilisation. This sustainable use of resources must be based on local technical innovations which are often based on traditional knowledge and practices. Choquill (1993) stressed the importance of using technology appropriate to a given situation which need not be the most advanced available. Especially in developing countries, complex technologies could prove to be unsustainable because of the difficulties in maintenance by the users.

Access to rural areas needs to be improved. Due to the fact that some rural areas are relatively far away from commercial centers they lack the infrastructure that will improve their market access. There is, however, a tendency for development programmes to highlight the improvement of infrastructure, because infrastructure is a clearly visible sign of progress.

Furthermore, people spend more time developing infrastructure and they tend to ignore human development. Infrastructure only represents development if it benefits people directly (Child and Peterson, 1991).

This concludes the section discussing the main components of rural development³. The following section deals with the integration of conservation and development, and illustrate the various principles by means of the case studies. These case studies include the Campfire Programme in Zimbabwe; the Annapurna Conservation Area project in Nepal; and the Richtersveld National Park in South Africa.

BOX 6. SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT PRINCIPLES AND OBJECTIVES OF SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT

PRINCIPLES OF SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT	MAIN REQUIREMENTS AND OBJECTIVES
1. Participation, decision-making and institution building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local community involvement in the development process enables communities to articulate their own needs and priorities • Participation in the decision-making process empowers people to have a say in developments that encroach on their living space and their resources • Institution-building is the creation of procedures or institutions for democratic decision-making at the local community level and the involvement of local people in these procedures
2. Income-earning opportunities, training and the provision of social services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating income-earning opportunities in rural areas would assure people a minimum standard of living and assist in eliminating poverty • However, to be able to respond to income-earning opportunities, people need to acquire skills through training and education • Social services is needed to improve the quality of life in rural areas by meeting their basic needs
3. Access to land and the sustainable use of resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increasing population pressure results in environmental degradation of existing areas through overgrazing and resource exploitation • Access to land is one of the most basic needs to rural dwellers. Increasing population pressure results and environmental degradation of existing areas through overgrazing and resource exploitation • There is a need for environmental rehabilitation based on sustainable resource utilisation. This sustainable use of resources must be based on local technical innovations which are often based on traditional knowledge and practices

³Refer to Box 6: Summary of Main principles and Objectives of Sustainable Rural Development.

3.4 Integrating Conservation and Rural Development

The main concern of integrated conservation and development projects is to promote social and economic development in communities living adjacent to protected areas. But in addition to rural development, integrated conservation and development projects need to go further than just improving people's quality of life. They must also conserve the biological diversity of the protected area, by using rural development to achieve this goal (Brandon and Wells, 1992).

The purpose of this section is to illustrate the different components necessary to integrate conservation and development projects. These components are derived from the core principle identified in Chapter 2, as well as principles and objectives embodied in the previous sections dealing with protected area management, and rural development.

3.4.1 Information Gathering

The relationship between protected areas and the communities living adjacent to these can only be understood through a site-specific analysis. Where the natural resources of a park are threatened, the knowledge of local social, economic, biological, cultural and administrative factors, that shape resource use patterns, is an essential pre-requisite to using economic development to change these patterns to more park-friendly activities (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Rural developments often fail to deliver benefits to communities due to inadequate socio-economic information and the lack of understanding of the indigenous knowledge and technology of the local people. Furthermore, external perceptions still exists that a 'community' is a particular group of people which would inevitably have similar stereotyped needs and motivations⁴. This leads to the imposition of 'blue print' development plans which is structured along generalised external perceptions of their needs and aspirations (Communication Consultants, 1991).

The collection of information provides the local people with the opportunity for early involvement and participation in projects. Through effective communication, common priorities and opportunities for "park and people" can be identified and ways in which they can benefit each other (Kruger, 1994). Methods used for the collection and transfer of information need to involve people in ways they can understand and with materials they are familiar with. Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) are such methods, which moved away from the conventional data collection methods to provide a more cost-effective and people-orientated process of information gathering.

⁴The community includes a wide range of people with different interests and values, not a homogenous, monolithic entity. It is thus important to socially differentiate and disaggregate communities by location, income, occupation, ethnicity etc. (Cock, 1990).

The Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) methods were developed in the late 1970's, as a method to tap what is known as Indigenous Technical Knowledge (ITK). ITK was recognised as a rich and valuable source of information. Through RRA, outsiders could come in contact with rural people and exchange information through the creation of forums (Chambers, 1993). This also made it also possible for outsiders to meet women and children, which was often missed in formal surveys. Although RRA's involve rural people, the people gathering the information still remain the main actors in gathering, processing and using the data (Chambers, 1993).

Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) provided local people with the opportunity to find solutions, reducing the role of the data collectors to that of facilitating rural people to investigate, produce, analyse and present information in order to plan their own future.

PRA is based on the philosophy that different people perceive the environment in different ways, but their views are equally important (CATAD, 1994). The PRA method also allows for everyone involved to agree on the results of the survey. The main features of PRA are:

- ◆ respecting people's knowledge and learning from them - the principle is to listen and not to lecture
- ◆ learning iteratively - learning is a process thus use methods flexibly and adapt them to the specific situation
- ◆ listening to the disadvantaged community - consult marginalised groups that are often not consulted
- ◆ optimum ignorance and appropriate imprecision - concentrate on the most important data by analysing information in the field and presenting the results to the people involved
- ◆ triangulation - using a diversity of opinions and sources in order to get a more complete picture of the situation
- ◆ visualisation - visualising data by e.g. drawings could transfer information more successfully in illiterate societies

(CATAD, 1994)

In combination with socio-economic and cultural data, one needs to gather bio-physical, policy, legislative and administrative information to provide the foundation for a holistic view and an integrated planning approach to all projects. The biophysical data is essential in

formulating policy and planning for the protected area, and to assess and monitor changes that occur due to possible change in land use patterns. Biophysical data should include:

- ◆ boundaries
- ◆ geomorphological regions
- ◆ climate
- ◆ geology
- ◆ hydrology
- ◆ soils
- ◆ plant cover
- ◆ fauna
- ◆ existing structures
- ◆ visual and landscape character

(Cooks and Van Riet, 1990)

Information on regional policies and planning frameworks are important since integrated conservation and development projects should be planned and managed in a coordinated fashion so as to form part of an overall land-use structure for the region in which they are to be developed.

3.4.2 Local Participation

Participation by local communities is a prerequisite for the long term sustainability of any integrated conservation and development project. There is ample evidence that projects which focus on generating economic benefits without effectively encouraging local participation in the design, implementation, or evaluation of development activities are less likely to provide widespread community benefits (Brandon, 1993).

In conservation and development projects there are two general approaches to community participation, namely the *beneficiary* and the *participatory* approach (*ibid*). The *beneficiary approach* is aimed at providing local communities with socio-economic benefits. The participatory approach however, goes well beyond just simply sharing of socio-economic

benefits. It involves local communities in a process of empowerment that will enable them to improve the quality of their lives. These two approaches will be examined in turn, beginning with the beneficiary approach.

The *beneficiary* approach perceives local people's involvement as passive and is thus just concerned with the development of tangible benefits. These benefits could include income through employment, sustainable use of resources and "handouts", but preclude any involvement in the management and decision-making of the project. More has to be done than merely to provide access to resources and income-generating activities through a portion of tourist income (Communication Consultants, 1991). It would be an unsustainable option to base project design on the unjustified assumption that financial benefits and employment are equivalent to local participation (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Local participation is a process that goes well beyond that of simply sharing the social and economic benefits. The Zimbabwe Trust organisation of Zimbabwe that was involved in developing the CAMPFIRE programme, sees the sustainable utilisation of resources as an added bonus and not part of their People and Parks neighbour relation programme (Communication Consultants, 1991). Participation can be defined as "empowering people to mobilize their own capacities, be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage their resources, make decisions and control the activities that control their lives" (Brandon and Wells, 1992). The participatory approach empowers people by involving them in the process of their own development.

The participatory approach seeks to achieve similar goals to that of the beneficiary approach, but also seeks to use the development project as a catalyst to stimulate self reliance (Brandon and Wells, 1992). This would lead to a process of change that can be sustained after the lifespan of the development project. Real participation will only be achieved by the consistent involvement of local people in strategic project issues instead of their occasional or limited involvement in day-to-day activities. The objectives of the participatory approach are:

- ◆ increasing project effectiveness
- ◆ increasing the capacity of beneficiaries to take responsibility for project activities
- ◆ facilitating cost sharing through local contributions of land, money or local labour

The sharing of costs through local contributions enable communities to steer away from the "free gift" or "shopping list" syndrome, in which communities rely on government support for the provision of goods and services. For instance, the Annapurna Conservation Area Project in Nepal avoided community projects as gifts and has consistently insisted on local participation in cash or labour. This required a minimum of 50% local contribution in any community project (Brandon and Wells, 1992). It is important to involve local stakeholders in

development projects because it gives them a vested interest in and greater commitment to achieve project goals (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Furthermore, participation empowers local groups to control and manage resources in a way that sustains the resources to meet their social, cultural and economic needs (Brandon, 1993). Thus, empowering local communities will enable them to contribute to and enforce decisions that affect their environment (Hanekom and Liebenberg, 1990). The establishment of the Richtersveld National Park, where initially the National Parks Board ignored the needs of the local people by not involving them in the planning process, turned out to be a drawn out process⁵ for the National Parks Board. This however, created an awareness that local communities must be involved at all levels of the planning and conservation process, in order to achieve sustainable results (Fourie, 1990 - in Hanekom and Liebenberg, 1990; and SPP, 1990). In Zimbabwe, the Campfire programme progressed out of failed attempts to provide local communities benefits from the indigenous wildlife. The reason for pre-Campfire attempts not being successful was the continued reluctance to involve the local communities in wild life management or in decision-making over such crucial factors as the distribution of benefits (Environmental Consultants, 1990).

Community participation does not only involve the planning and conservation process. According to Brandon and Wells (1992) there are five main areas where local communities can participate in conservation and development projects:

- ◆ Information gathering - collection and sharing of information with intended beneficiaries.
- ◆ Consultation - beneficiaries are consulted on key issues of the project, giving them an opportunity to interact and provide feedback during project design and/or implementation.
- ◆ Decision-making - beneficiaries participate in decision-making for project design and/or implementation thus implying a greater degree of control and responsibility than just the passive acceptance of possible unwanted benefits.
- ◆ Initiating action - identifying and responding to a new need in a project and thus taking the initiative for their own development.
- ◆ Evaluation - beneficiaries can provide valuable insights and lessons for project design and implementation by participatory post-project evaluation.

⁵It was also productive and a good learning experience for conservationists in the South Africa.

The Campfire programme in Zimbabwe is structured around the indigenous wildlife and the innate ability of the rural communities to identify their own needs and to manage their own affairs (Environmental Consultants, 1990). This will improve the livelihood of rural people and impart on them a sense of self-confidence and self-dependence that has long been denied (Child and Peterson, 1991).

3.4.3 Institution building

Community involvement is more likely to be sustained by the participation of institutions than that of individuals. Institutions help to organise communities in administrative, planning and management structures and to empower them by the creation of procedures for democratic decision-making. These structures will, through effective participation, expand beyond the lifespan of the project and the community will regard them as their normal way of conducting affairs.

The Campfire programme identified the development of appropriate community institutions for management and decision-making as one of their fundamental principles. The problem was that the 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act in Zimbabwe only devolves responsibility for wildlife to private landowners or district councils - it remains the property of the state. Thus, it does not automatically allow for the real grass-roots decision making, in resource management and extraction that is necessary if a genuine reconciliation between local people and wildlife is to be achieved. The need was therefore to evolve institutions at the lowest level of the community to "create a moral, if not a legal, sense of community wildlife 'ownership' and so encourage socially just management of the resources and the distribution of benefits" (Environmental Consultants, 1990). Institutions that directly involve rural people in decision-making, management of resources, and the transfer of information will allow communities to articulate their needs and to take full responsibility of their actions.

Child and Peterson (1991) stressed the importance of demand driven institution building. In the Campfire project at Chikwarakwara, a committee was elected by the community for the running of a grinding mill⁶. Before doing so, the responsibilities of the committee was described and the committee members in conjunction with government extension workers were tasked to draw up a constitution which would stipulate the running of the committee. This constitution had to be verified at a community mass meeting (Child and Peterson, 1991).

The grinding mill committee resulted out of a community need for such service. Therefore, it is important to note the difference between creating an institution for the sake of 'institution

⁶The grinding mill at Chikwarakwara was financed through community cash benefits derived through sport hunting. The community decided to invest a portion of these benefits into a community project, hence the grinding mill (Child and Peterson, 1991).

building' and the creation of demand driven functional institutions, which arise spontaneously when there is a need for them.

3.4.4 Participatory Organisations

According to Brandon and Wells (1992) there are three principal roles for participating organisations in integrated conservation-development projects:

- ◆ project implementation
- ◆ management of the protected area
- ◆ source of funds

Government commitment to conservation-development projects is essential if the projects are to succeed. The role of government in establishing the appropriate national policies is crucial, because without the suitable policy and legislative environment, the ability to sustain even the most successful project is doubtful (ibid.). Furthermore, only national government can provide basic services at the scale necessary to alleviate poverty. However, government commitment is required, not only at national level, but also at regional and local government level.

The role of local government is important in providing a framework to assist and facilitate local development. Local government should be part of the democratic system of government that provides for representation at local level for local communities. It is thus, the most accessible tier of government for most voters (INLOGOV, 1995). Apart from providing basic services, local government should also be involved in the allocation of resources directly affecting the community. Thus, local authorities should be structured in such a way as to ensure maximum local participation in decision-making and developmental initiatives (ANC, 1994). This is especially important because local government is responsible for area-specific development planning.

The role of local government in the allocation of resources, and thereby encouraging local community participation in resource utilisation and management, can be illustrated by the Campfire project in Zimbabwe. As a consequence of the amendment of the 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act in Zimbabwe, district councils to have the statutory authority and responsibility to manage wildlife on communal lands. The district council, with the appropriate authority over wildlife, then delegated that authority to the producer communities, retaining such safeguards as necessary to ensure that their statutory responsibilities are fulfilled. This allowed the local community to be producer, manager, and have the appropriate authority to benefit from

wildlife in communal lands. In Beitbridge⁷, the district council retained functions such as policy formulation, coordination and the marketing of wildlife and training, but the management of wildlife has been devolved to the producing community. Furthermore, the success of the Campfire project at Beitbridge can be ascribed to the dedication of the district council, and their understanding of principles underlying Campfire and rural development (Child and Peterson, 1991).

Non-governmental organisations (NGO's) play an important role in facilitating participatory decision-making at community level. They should also play a leading role in the empowerment of rural communities through capacity-building (ANC, 1994; and Gubb, 1994). Environmental NGO's recognise that the eradication of poverty is a prerequisite for sustainable development (Gubb, 1994).

This multi-faceted role of NGO's is reflected by the involvement of the Zimbabwe Trust in the Campfire programme in Zimbabwe. The Zimbabwe Trust is a non-governmental development agency active in rural community mobilisation and the promotion of economic institutions for the management of resources at community level. Zimbabwe Trust's involvement was in response to the need for a non-governmental organisation agency that could undertake pre-project investigation and planning, communicate with government and local communities, and could provide assistance with institution-building in rural areas and the implementation of Campfire projects. In 1988, the Zimbabwe Trust established a Wildlife Community Development Programme, which aimed to help communities to develop their institutional capacity to manage natural resources. Furthermore, such a programme can provide guidance in project identification and appraisal, planning, monitoring and evaluation, and could also assist in allocating donors and funding organisations (Environmental Consultants, 1990).

There are however, some weaknesses concerning governmental and non-governmental organisations. Bureaucratic central governments often provide top-down, blue-print design projects which are sponsored by international development agencies, resulting in unsustainable solutions with negative social and environmental consequences. Most governments are also unlikely to permit NGO operations to reach a scale large enough to make a meaningful contribution to the conservation of biodiversity (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Non-governmental organisation on the other hand, often lack the necessary expertise to design, implement and evaluate integrated conservation and development projects (ibid). They often

⁷The Beitbridge District in southern Zimbabwe, is one of the areas within which the Campfire programme was implemented with remarkable success (Child and Peterson, 1991). Child and Peterson (1991) describe the progress made at Beitbridge as "revolutionary". This is partly due to the fact that this area was one of the first to experiment with direct cash payments to the community derived from the management and utilisation of 'their' wildlife, as well as the dedication of and the remarkable progress made by the Beitbridge District Council in implementing this programme

lack the ability to scale-up successful projects and also have limited managerial and organisational capacities. Furthermore, NGO's often have limited ability to develop community organisation that are self-sustaining after the withdrawal of their specialised staff and resources (Brown and Korten, 1989).

Donors and funding organisations have become increasingly interested in investing in projects that link conservation with development as part of their growing environmental mandates (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Ecotourism developments are an attractive investment proposition and attract vast⁸ amounts of foreign investment, especially in the capital scarce situation of the Third World economies (Cater, 1994). Unfortunately, external funding might also have negative effects within the local context of the development. Donors and funding organisations often enforce 'blue-print' solutions for development, and tend to ignore, or pay less attention to the site-specific conditions.

3.4.5 Need for Partnerships

The implementation of integrated conservation and development projects needs the assistance of several key organisations. Each different type of organisation has a important contribution to make, however when working independently, none of these organisations can effectively plan and implement integrated conservation and development projects (Brandon and Wells, 1992). Thus, for effectively linking ecosystem protection and economic development, there is a strong need for participating organisations to form partnerships.

Partnerships provide the basis that would effectively address the challenge to distinguish integrated conservation and development projects from all other conservation and development projects (ibid). By building alliances and involving a greater variety of parties, would also increase the projects access to a large pool of shared resources, information, expertise and values (Nelson, 1994). Brandon and Wells (1992) stresses that two types of partnerships would be particular important in project design and implementation: partnerships between development and conservation NGO's, as well as partnerships between these NGO's and different government agencies. Finally, it is important for participating organisations to effectively strengthen institutional weaknesses through these partnerships.

3.4.6 Resource Utilisation

"Conservation plans acceptable to the people under the prevailing conditions of socio-economic development will have to be based on an appraisal of cultural, political, ecological

⁸The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) estimated the world-wide ecotourism market at \$10 Billion in 1990, whereas a study undertaken by the Canadian Wildlife Service suggests that approximately \$200 Billion was spend on ecotourism activities globally (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1992 in Cater, 1994).

and socio-economic factors that can balance resource policy with local human needs in both the short and long term". (Lusigi, 1984)

The establishment of protected areas are often associated with local people losing their homes and means of livelihood. Rather than accepting local communities rights to use and manage natural resources, such projects often regard local people as ignorant of and responsible for the destruction of their environment (Pleumarom, 1994). However, local communities can only have a stake in natural resources and thus in conservation, if they have access to and benefits from these resources.(GEM, 1993). Furthermore, access to resources can be justified based on the equity argument: local people should not have to make economic sacrifices to protect an area established to provide global benefits (Brandon and Wells, 1992).

3.4.6.1 Planning and Management of Resources

Effective resource management and rural poverty is viewed as interlinking factors in a holistic planning and development strategy (Communication Consultants, 1991). However, most conservation-development projects are based on the beneficiary approach and thus there are only a few projects that help communities to plan and manage their resources more wisely (Brandon, 1993).

Cooks and Van Riet (1990), states that the objectives of natural resource planning should be:

- ◆ the identification of the natural resources and their inherent value through ecosystem analysis
- ◆ the development of a model that would allow for utilisation of the natural resources to realise individual values and at the same time protect certain social values

This implies the protection of natural resources through conservation, but not at the expense of sustainable utilisation of resources by those dependent on them. The ecological carrying capacity of the natural environment will determine the level of sustainable resource utilisation. The problem is however that, whilst the resource use levels must never exceed the carrying capacity of an area, restriction is not truly a sustainable option if it results in the local population being denied the development potential that exists. Furthermore, if local community involvement in projects are only restricted to the utilisation of resources, it has very limited application. This is a paternalistic approach solely because it is the conservation authority who makes the decision (Communication Consultants, 1991). Resource use will also depend on 'availability' of the resources due to seasonal stock changes, which makes it a unpredictable proposition. Thus, in most cases the solution will have to be a compromise between conservation and development needs (Cater, 1994).

3.4.6.2 Sustainable use of resources

There are several conservation-development projects based on the principle of sustainable utilisation indigenous resources. According to Rees (1990, in Cater, 1994), any human activity dependent on the consumptive use of natural resources will not be sustained unless the resources are regarded as capital stock. If these resources are exploited, instead of only utilising the annual production of the biosphere (the 'interest'), the result would be unsustainable.

The Campfire project in Zimbabwe is based on the management and sustainable utilisation of their indigenous wildlife resources. The survival of wildlife depends ultimately on changing the perception of the people who has to live with it. Furthermore, sustainable rural development depends on strategies to improve people's live while maintaining their resource base. Thus, Campfire reconciled these two objectives by proving rural people with economic benefits from sustainable wildlife utilisation. It provides a powerful incentive for rural people to conserve and manage their wildlife, and therefore encourages the protection of natural ecosystems and wildlife habitats (Environmental Consultants, 1990).

Campfire's success depends on several interlinked ecological, economic, legal, and social factors for the sustainable utilisation of its wildlife resources (Environmental Consultants, 1990). Ecologically, it is based on sound research and ecological land planning. Through surveys and by effectively involving the local communities land use planning, the best land for wildlife use is identified. Then, if agreed on the project to proceed, voluntary restriction of human settlements to the areas best suited for it, and the setting aside of those areas best suited for wildlife follows. Furthermore, by using effective wildlife cencusing and monitoring techniques, the sustainable offtake of several important species, and hence the probable income derived from them can be determined. This proposed income is then compared to the probable cost, and thus will determine the vitality of the project.

Economically, it depends on good markets to sell the 'goods and services' that wildlife can produce. Furthermore, these markets should provide returns greater than any other form of land use. In Campfire, the advantage that the sustainable utilisation of wildlife have over a cattle, is that it provides a more diverse range of benefits. Sporthunting generates high revenues achieved through a low, and thus sustainable offtake. Meat is still provided, but as a byproduct. Furthermore, wildlife could create a substantial income by utilising it for its aesthetic value through tourism and photosafaris (Environmental Consultants, 1990).

The 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act maintained wildlife as State property, but permitted landholders to benefit from wildlife, but based on the principles of sound ecological management. However, the Government wished to extent these benefits to wildlife producers in communal lands, and amendment the Act to allow the 'appropriate authority' status to

district councils (Child and Peterson, 1991). The district councils with this status can make their own arrangements for wildlife management and use, and could thus delegate them to local communities. Thus, by delegating authority to the local communities, it enabled the communities to form their own institutions to manage the wildlife, and ultimately benefit from it. These institutions also created a sense of 'ownership' amongst the communities, and thus encouraged socially just management of the resource and also the distribution of benefits derived from it (Environmental Consultants, 1990).

The Richtersveld National Park is the first national park in South Africa which include local communities in the management and conservation of the Park. The Richtersveld area is regarded as the only true mountainous desert region within South Africa and it houses a rich diversity of geology, geomorphology, and succulents (Robinson, 1992). It was thus earmarked as an area that needed to be proclaimed as a national park to conserve its fragile ecology and rich geological diversity.

However, the Richtersveld area have been utilised by pastoralist stock farmers for generation (SPP, 1989). The stock farmers were adamant to continue their farming activities in the area which was earmarked for the proclamation of the national park. Furthermore, a botanist dr. Jurgens concluded that a complete exclusion of the indigenous pastoralist from the Park area cannot be justified with ecological considerations (Jurgens in SPP, 1989). This resulted in continued utilisation of the area by the stock farmers according to a management plan for the Richtersveld National Park. This management plan was drawn up the Management Committee which represents both the Richtersveld community and the National Parks Board (Robinson, 1992).

3.4.6.3 The 'Non-consumptive' use of Resources

Tourism is often regarded as means to derive economic benefits through the "non-consumptive" use of resources (Communication Consultants, 1991 and Wynberg, 1995a). Wynberg (1995a) states that South Africa's landscapes and biodiversity have enormous recreational and aesthetic value, and that it attracts millions of tourists each year. This non-consumptive use is seen as probably the biggest economic value of biodiversity to South Africa.

However, there are no example of tourist use that is completely without any impact (Cater, 1994). Butler (1991, in Cater, 1994) states that it is impossible that even ecotourism, which is normally based on natural attractions, will not have some environmental impact. Even if these impacts are small, in aggregate they "will become all the more significant, especially when such activities are inevitably concentrated in time and space" (ibid). Furthermore, the scope and interacting effects of cumulative impacts may not be realised due to insufficient monitoring and evaluation inside and outside conservation areas (Nelson, 1994). Cater (1994) states that

Third World countries might not be able to afford environmental measures that prevent, ameliorate or restore degradation. Thus, if the protection and preservation of natural resources is the ultimate goal, then there should be no tourism development (Butler, 1991 in Cater, 1994).

3.4.6.4 Providing Alternatives to Prevent Resource Depletion

It is not only important to manage natural resources inside protected areas, but those adjacent to them. There is often a lack to identify viable alternatives for the extensive resource use practices that threaten protected areas. Furthermore, in order to reduce resource depletion, it is necessary to encourage the substitution of more intensive production systems for existing extensive systems (e.g. slash and burn techniques) and thus reducing future pressure on the conservation of protected areas (Brandon and Wells, 1992).

Trees play a vital role in most of South African rural communities. They provide timber for building, fencing, fodder for animals and is their main source of energy supply. Social forestry is a broad term that covers a broad range of tree related activities which enables communities to meet their resource needs and reduce environmental degradation through a process of capacity building (Van Niekerk, 1994). These activities include food gardens and agroforestry, and it allows the community to assert ownership and manage the resource. Furthermore, social forestry provides employment opportunities and teaches people to grow plants for their particular needs (ibid).

In the Annapurna Conservation Area, an explosion in trekking tourism resulted in the building of over 700 tea shops and lodges to cater for these tourists (Gurung and De Coursey, 1994). Localised deforestation from spiralling fuelwood and construction demands, resulted in a decrease in forest habitats and an increase in environmental degradation. The acute fuelwood shortage in the area led to the implementation of a kerosene-only policy (ibid). In addition, agroforestry was used to combat deforestation and to encourage environmental rehabilitation. The first stage of the project included the establishment of several community nurseries and to distribute tree seedlings at a low cost. The local farmers was then encouraged to plant trees to stabilise slopes and to provide them with fuelwood and fodder (Brandon and Wells, 1992).

The growing demand for medicinal plants for traditional herbal medicine, is also threatening the survival of a number of indigenous species (Van Niekerk, 1994). Protected area managers can only allow a limited sustainable offtake to ensure the preservation of certain plant species. However, one way of meeting these needs, and to provide an additional source of income to the local community, is through the establishment of medicinal plant nurseries. Many conservation agencies view the establishments of indigenous plant nurseries in neighbouring communities as a viable option because it reduces the pressure of wild populations and would

have a significant effect on attitudes towards the park (Communication Consultants, 1991 and NPB, 1994).

Finally, permaculture provides rural communities with a sustained food supply and enhance local environmental conditions by increasing plant cover and biomass. The permaculture model is based on a holistic view of the environment, working with nature to provide sustainable agriculture. The underpinning principle of permaculture is that without permanent agriculture, there is no possibility of a stable social order (Communication Consultants, 1991). Furthermore, permaculture will raise the nutritional conditions of the community by supplementing their food supply, and thus reduce their food expenditure.

3.4.7 Linking Benefits to Conservation

The success of any integrated conservation and development project, ultimately depends on effectively linking the local community's socio-economic benefits to the conservation of protected area. In addition, the project must seek the support and cooperation of, and identifies with those who are the real beneficiaries (Communication Consultants, 1991). Producer communities should also be given the 'choice' on how to spend these benefits, thereby empowering them to manage their own resources. Without these requirements, the local community will not realise that their well-being is dependent on the successful conservation of the protected area.

3.4.7.1 Identifying the Real Beneficiaries

One of Campfire's most fundamental principles is that the benefits must go to the community who pays the financial and social cost of tolerating wildlife, and who therefore act as the 'producer community' of wildlife in the communal lands (Communication Consultants, 1991). Child and Peterson (1991), in their account of the Campfire projects at Beitbridge, stressed the importance in keeping producer communities small and homogenous. This was based on the realisation that development required communities to make their own decisions, and in order for this to happen, communities need to be small to keep them accountable and cohesive. Furthermore, small producer communities will encourage individuals to become more involved in project management and decisionmaking (ibid).

The distribution of benefits should also be biased towards the communities that bear the highest social and economic costs. In other words, people benefited in direct proportion to how much wildlife their communities have produced. Child and Peterson (1991) stated that by directly linking the amount of wildlife a community produced and the amount of revenue they received, incentives structures for cultivating wildlife were introduced. More-over, linking these incentives directly to effort, communities realised that they will only benefit from the programme if they 'produce' wildlife *i.e.* through effective resource management. They

realised that "land use planning and investment were an essential input into their wildlife enterprise - it was not a windfall gain" (ibid).

3.4.7.2 Distributing the Benefits

Child and Peterson (1991) describes that at Beitbridge, communities involved in the Campfire project were rewarded according to the quantity of wildlife they had 'produced'. Furthermore, they argue that by spreading out the benefits from wildlife evenly throughout the whole area, it would have diluted them so much that inevitably, it would have resulted in the failure of the project. However, those communities who benefited from the project were given the choice: cash, community project, or both?

Cash is a essential lubricant for economic development (ibid). More-over, there is a real cash crises in rural areas, mostly because communities fail to produce cash crops. Thus, the decision to pay communities cash not only made sound economic sense, but helped people to visualise the direct link between wildlife and the benefits derived from it. For example, the Camp fire project at Chikwarakwara (Beitbridge), chose to have both cash and community projects. In order to distribute the cash equally through the community, they first had to register all the households involved in the project. Thereafter, a suitable definition of what a 'household' was had to agreed on by all involved. The cash was then distributed fairly amongst the households, whereafter they each handed back the portion they all agreed on for the community projects. The importance of this procedure is firstly, it illustrates that the community themselves had decided how to use their money. Secondly, the presence of the cash helped people visualise the choices they had made, and finally it illustrated that people actually received benefits from the conservation of wildlife (Child and Peterson, 1991).

Another approach is the establishment of a community trust or fund. The Richtersveld Community Trust was established to manage the funds generated by the contractual agreement between National Parks Board and the Richtersveld community. The funds consisted of the R80 000 a year rental that the National Parks Board has to pay for the land, and the profit generated by the succulent nursery (SPP, 1990). The Trust will act as an charitable and/or educational institution which will be their for the benefit of the people of the Richtersveld. Trustees are elected by the inhabitants of the Richtersveld at a public meeting. In order to benefit from this trust, the local people have to apply for funds by stating and motivating their intentions on how the funds are going to used. Proposals consisting of the following criteria would be considered more favourable:

- ◆ proposals that benefit the broader Richtersveld community
- ◆ the proposals that consider both short and long term benefits

- ◆ if the proposal benefits disadvantaged communities
- ◆ proposals with environmental education value
- ◆ proposals to the benefit of the social or biophysical environment
- ◆ minimum environmental impact
- ◆ proposals that promote the Nama culture and Nama values
- ◆ proposals that will encourage community participation with the Richtersveld National Park, which includes involvement in tourism projects

(Hill, 1995 *pers. comm.*)

This approach eradicate the problem of defining the 'producer community' by allowing equitable access to all people that are affected. The problem is however, that the link between conservation and the economic benefits gets distorted. This is due to the fact that the local community feel they have limited control over the allocation of funds, and that the funds are spend in ways that do not benefit the community as a whole. Furthermore, if the elected trustees fail to communicate their activities and their accounts at community level, they will lose their trust and deemed as being unaccountable to the community.

3.4.8 Monitoring and Evaluation

Conservation and development projects often give insufficient attention to the monitoring and evaluation of these projects. Nelson (1994) states that more detailed and widespread monitoring and evaluation could help a better understanding of the state of the protected areas ecosystems and ecocomplex, and could lead to improved communication on what type of activities are acceptable. Thus, it would provide a measure on how the integrated conservation and development project has contributed to the conservation of biological diversity by improving the prospects for survival for the targeted area (Brandon and Wells, 1992).

Environmental Management Systems (EMS) provides a comprehensive framework to improve the environmental management and sustainability of projects. The "Code of Practice for Environmental Systems" was published by the South African Bureau of Standards and derived from the British Standards Institution's "Specification for Environmental Management Systems" (Hill, Bergman and Bowen, 1994). Of relevance is the EMS's requirement to develop an environmental management plan (EMP), and to undertake periodic audits of environmental performance. The EMP stipulate amongst others, environmental objectives and targets to be met, work instructions and controls to be applied in order to achieve compliance with environmental policies, and operational procedures for controlling various activities (ibid).

These include the procedures for the measurement of performance indicators. Developing key objectives and indicators for activities initiated can allow projects to measure the impact of their socio-economic activities, and their conservation objectives, so as to provide useful input for future planning (Brandon, 1993). Furthermore, the EMP stipulates that the data collected to monitor performance indicators would be recorded, and then compared with standards which was set to reflect the objectives and targets of the EMP (Hill, Bergman and Bowen, 1994).

The last requirement of management system is periodic audits of the environmental performance and the effectiveness of the EMS (ibid). An audit evaluate environmental systems and provide valuable information in terms of the weaknesses of the EMS. Auditing could be done either internally by the management team or externally by an environmental consultant. Brandon and Wells (1992) states that evaluating effectiveness of integrated conservation and development projects require comparing the initial goals of the project with the subsequent progress made towards achieving them. They propose the following steps:

- ◆ assess the effects of project activities on people outside protected area boundaries
- ◆ assess the status of fauna and flora inside the protected area and changes in their status since the project began
- ◆ attempt to identify any visual links between changes in conditions inside protected areas and project initiatives outside

Finally, it is relatively easy to make monitoring and evaluation part of the ongoing participation process (Brandon, 1993). When monitoring and evaluation are part of such a process it allows for adjustments to be made as the project unfolds. This could include the balancing of the short and long term benefits, of which short term benefits is essential for the credibility of the project locally (ibid). Participation in monitoring and evaluation would also increase project effectiveness, thus ensuring that benefits will be sustained beyond the life span of the project.

This concludes the section dealing with the components of integrated conservation and development projects⁹.

⁹Refer to Box 7: Summary of Key Components of Integrated Conservation and Rural Development Projects.

BOX: 7. SUMMARY OF KEY COMPONENTS FOR INTEGRATED CONSERVATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

COMPONENTS FOR INTEGRATION OF CONSERVATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT	MAIN REQUIREMENTS AND OBJECTIVES
1. Information Gathering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Projects need to be based on site specific information and an understanding of indigenous knowledge and technology • The collection of information provides the local people with the opportunity for early involvement and participation in projects • Information required includes socio-economic, cultural, political, legislative, policies, administrative and biophysical data
2. Local Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation by local communities is a prerequisite for the long term sustainability of any integrated conservation and development project • In integrated conservation and development projects there are two approaches to community involvement: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the beneficiary approach which only allows for tangible benefits to the local community; and - the participatory approach which provides tangible benefits through real community participation • There are five main areas where local communities can participate in conservation and development projects: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - information gathering; - consultation; - decisionmaking; - initiating action; and - monitoring and evaluation
3. Institution building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutions help to organize communities in administrative, planning and management structures and to empower them by the creation of procedures for democratic decision-making • Community involvement is more likely to be sustained by the participation of institutions than that of individuals • It is important to note the difference between creating an institution for the sake of 'institution building' and the creation of demand driven functional institutions, which arise spontaneously when there is a need for them
4. Participatory organisations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The role of national government is to establish the appropriate national policies and legislative environment crucial to the successful implementation of integrated conservation and development projects • The role of local government is important in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - providing a framework to assist and facilitate local development; - the allocation of resources directly affecting the community; and to - ensure maximum local participation in decision-making and developmental initiatives • Non-governmental organisations (NGO's) play an important role in facilitating participatory decision-making at community level • Donors and funding organisations in supplying financial assistance to projects

5. Need for Partnerships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To effectively link ecosystem development and economic development, there is a strong need for participating organisations to form partnerships • By building alliances and involving a greater variety of parties, would also increase the projects access to a large pool of shared resources, information, expertise and values
6. Resource Utilisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to resources can be justified based on the equity argument: local people should not have to make economic sacrifices to protect an area established to provide global benefits
6.1 Planning and management of Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective resource management and rural poverty is viewed as interlinking factors in a holistic planning and development strategy
6.2 Sustainable use of resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local community involvement must include resource planning and management, but must not be restricted to it • There are four components necessary for the sustainable utilisation of resources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ecological research and land planning; - economic base which regards natural resources as capital stock; - legislation that permits local communities joint control over land and the equitable receipt of benefits derived from that control; and - local community institution must be established to ensure the socially just management of resources and distribution of benefits
6.3 Providing Alternatives to Prevent Resource Depletion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage the substitution of more intensive production systems for existing extensive systems • Encourage social forestry activities such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - agroforestry; - food gardens; and - the establishment of medicinal plant nurseries • Encourage the use of permaculture methods which provides rural communities with a sustained food supply, and enhance local environmental conditions by increasing plant cover and biomass
7. Linking Benefits to Conservation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The success of any integrated conservation and development project depends on effectively linking the local community's socio-economic benefits to the conservation of the protected area
7.1 Identifying the Real Beneficiaries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benefits must go to the community who pays the financial and social cost of conservation
7.2 Distributing the Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local communities should be given the choice on how to spend their benefits (e.g. cash, community projects, or community trust), thereby empowering them to manage their own resources
8. Monitoring and Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Detailed and widespread monitoring and evaluation could help a better understanding of the state of the protected areas ecosystems and ecocomplex, and could lead to improved communication on what type of activities are acceptable • In addition, it would provide a measure on how the integrated conservation and development project has contributed to the conservation of biological diversity by improving the prospects for survival for the targeted area • Local community participation in monitoring and evaluation would increase project effectiveness, thus ensuring that benefits will be sustained beyond the life span of the project

3.5 Conclusion

Conservation ideologies are progressing from a previous ecocentric management approach towards a more socially orientated role for national parks and protected areas. This is based on the realisation that the conservation of biological diversity will only be possible if people benefit from the sustainable utilisation of these resources. Hence the movement from the 'traditional parks' management approach towards multi-use areas which includes rural communities in planning and management of natural resources.

Rural development evolves around a process of social upliftment and empowerment thus enabling communities to improve the quality of their lives. More-over, rural communities have to conserve their resource base which is only possible through sustainable utilisation and effective participation in planning and management of resources.

Integrated conservation and rural development projects could accommodate both conservation management and rural development objectives in a mutual beneficiary way. Such projects could empower local communities through participatory decisionmaking and institution building in concurrence with providing economic incentives to conserve biological diversity.

The different components necessary to integrate conservation and development projects discussed in this chapter, echo the core principles identified in chapter 2. Furthermore, the various case studies discussed illustrated the importance of these principles in conservation and development projects. Thus, by implication these components or core principles should form the basis of any successful conservation and development project. Therefore, these principles and components should be included in the *Checklist to Maximise Community Participation in Ecotourism Developments as means to successful Integrate Conservation and Development*, which will be discussed in Chapter 5.

The next chapter will focus on ecotourism development as means to integrate conservation and rural development. Therefore, it will aim to integrate these core principles in the project cycle of ecotourism developments, and illustrate the practicability of such an approach through case studies.

Chapter 4

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CHAPTER 4 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENTS

4.1 Introduction

"Those in the international conservation community who are indeed sincere about the true intent of ecodevelopment tourism need to operate with a clearer social scientific understanding of the conditions necessary to achieve these objectives for the rural poor, and a coordinated political will to resist the tendencies in the political economy that can tend to thwart those objectives"

(West and Brechin, 1991 in Brandon, 1993)

Good defn
The Ecotourism Society (1990; in Satour, 1995) defines ecotourism as tourism that "includes travel to natural areas; to understand the cultural and the natural history of the environment; taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem, while producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of natural resources beneficial to the local people". Ecotourism is the fastest growing sector of tourism worldwide (Satour, 1994). Tourism generates more than R10,5 trillion a year which amounts to more than 6 percent of the world GNP. It employs 127 million people worldwide, accounting for 1 out of every 15 employees (Cameron, 1995). Travel and tourism invest more than R10 billion each year in new facilities and capital equipment, which is 7.3 percent of the worldwide capital investment. Africa only represents 1.6 percent of the global tourism market, but it already accounts for 4 952 000 jobs - 11.6 percent of all employed in Africa (Borchert, 1995).

Yes!
Ecotourism has the potential to make a meaningful contribution to the well-being of the people and the eco-systems of the destination countries (Borchert, 1995). In South Africa, *same as leading* ecotourism *resources* products are mostly located in the poverty-stricken rural areas. Therefore, local community involvement in ecotourism developments can not only provide tangible benefits to these communities, but also empower them through participatory decisionmaking. Furthermore, ecotourism can provide a major source of added revenue to conservation bodies for environmental management and planning (Satour, 1995). Thus, ecotourism can provide conservation agencies with a vehicle to enhance conservation management by linking protected areas with socio-economic benefits to local communities. *VS*
or

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss community involvement in ecotourism projects. This chapter aims to supplement the discussion in Chapter 3, and should thus be seen as a continuation of the discussions in the previous chapter. Firstly, it will define the concept of ecotourism and list some of the advantages and disadvantages of ecotourism. There-after, the potential of ecotourism developments as means to integrate conservation and rural development will be discussed. This is followed by examining community involvement in the various phases of the ecotourism development process. The core principles identified for

integrating conservation and rural development in chapter 2, and discussed in chapter 3, will be integrated within the project cycle of ecotourism developments. The components of the ecotourism development process will consist of the following development phases:

- ◆ **The Project Planning Phase**, which will include information gathering, institution building, resource use, and design of ecotourism facilities
- ◆ **The Project Construction Phase**
- ◆ **The Project Implementation**, which deals with local development and the distribution of benefits
- ◆ **The Project Monitoring and Evaluation**

Finally, the concept of community based tourism and the associated difficulties in implementing these projects will be discussed.

4.2 The Concept of Ecotourism or Nature tourism

Ecotourism or nature tourism can be described as responsible travel to natural areas with the intention to improve the welfare of the local people (Western, 1993). Ceballos-Lascurain (in Boo, 1992) gives a more comprehensive definition by defining nature tourism as "tourism that consists in traveling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas". Ecotourism, in other words, incorporates both a strong commitment to nature and a sense of social responsibility (Western, 1993). Thus to ensure that ecotourism developments are sustainable, there has to be effective local community participation. Cater (1993) states that such involvement must also extend beyond economic survival, conservation of resources and socio-cultural integrity, to allow appreciation by the community of their own natural resources.

However, the term '*ecotourism*' is often exploited by the tourism trade as a form of environmental opportunism. Steele (1993; in Cater, 1994) for example, describes ecotourism as "an economic process where rare and beautiful eco-systems are marketed internationally to attract tourists", often resulting in environmental degradation and destruction. Thus ecotourism might be ecologically based, but not ecologically sound. The potential costs of ecotourism could be environmental degradation, economic inequity and instability, and negative socio-cultural changes (Boo, 1993). But through local involvement, ecotourism has the potential to provide a sustainable means to integrate conservation and community development. Wynberg (1995b) states that stimulating rural economies and the involvement of local people in resource management are amongst the essential objectives of ecotourism.

Furthermore, ecotourism provides the opportunity for the "non-consumptive"¹ use of biodiversity (Wynberg, 1995a). By exploring the recreational and aesthetical value of biodiversity through ecotourism, one can heighten awareness of the importance of conservation to tourists, and provide these people with the opportunity to contribute to the protection of conservation areas. However, unless the requirement of safeguarding the environment is met, ecotourism will destroy the very resource it depends on resulting in a self-destructive process (Cater, 1994).

This section discussed the concept of ecotourism, and aimed to stipulate some requirements for ecotourism development². The next section will briefly discuss the advantages and disadvantages of ecotourism.

BOX 8. KEY REQUIREMENTS OF ECOTOURISM

Ecotourism development should:

- incorporate a strong commitment to the conservation of nature
- heighten the awareness of the importance of conservation
- ensure a strong sense of social responsibility
- conserve local cultural integrity
- ensure local community participation in planning, management and implementation of ecotourism developments
- equitable access to natural resources
- empower communities through capacity building
- provide tangible benefits to the local community
- provide a sustainable means to integrate conservation and rural development; and thus
- link socio-economic benefits to conservation

Handwritten notes:
• Capacity building = env. integrity
Negative & positive effects.

¹Refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.4.6.3

²Refer to Box 8: Key Requirements of Ecotourism.

4.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Ecotourism

Ideally, the smaller scale, dispersed nature of ecotourism development, with less sophisticated demands, should enable a much higher degree of local participation and associated socio-economic benefits than other forms of tourism (Cater, 1993). Furthermore, nature based tourism and conservation should be mutually beneficial. However, negative impacts of ecotourism are still evident where local communities are denied benefits from ecotourism development, or where the requirements to safeguard the environment are neglected. Thus, ecotourism developments are often associated with positive and negative impacts on conservation areas and neighbouring socio-economic context (Boo, 1993).

4.3.1 Benefits from Ecotourism

4.3.1.1 Ecotourism Benefits to Conservation

Ecotourism can provide economic justification for protected areas that might not otherwise receive protection (Boo, 1990). A good example is that of many Third World countries, which are rich in wildlands and ecosystems, yet disadvantaged by rural poverty and lack of income generating practices. Kenya earns approximately \$500 million a year in tourism revenues, an amount which accounts for 10 percent of its gross national product (Western, 1993).

Protected areas with a relative high number of ecotourists can create a substantial amount of revenue which could be used to improve environmental management and conservation of the area (Boo, 1990). This could also improve and place a greater emphasis on interpretive activities, thus increasing the environmental awareness of the tourists and local communities.

4.3.1.2 Socio-Economic Benefits of Ecotourism

As mentioned above, ecotourism could provide a substantial amount of income to developing countries. Ecotourism can contribute to national economies not only by increasing foreign exchange earnings, but also by attracting investment capital for infrastructural development and thus expanding the service sector and subsequently providing more employment opportunities (Boo, 1990). Furthermore, ecotourism tends to occur in peripheral and non-industrialised regions. Hence the attraction of ecotourism development to developing countries, because it places emphasis on local resources and employment which makes ecotourism attractive to developing countries (Western, 1993).

By involving local communities in ecotourism planning and development, ecotourism can provide tangible benefits to communities, especially in the rural areas. Johnson (1990; in Brandon, 1993) states that one of the most significant responses to the problems of ecotourism is "the emerging participation of indigenous peoples in studying, discussing, and devising strategies to control or capture control over the development decision-making process". This will ensure increased benefits to communities such as improved access to resources, income

generating opportunities, and employment which will result in improved resource management. Finally, by distributing the socio-economic benefits of ecotourism and thus providing a catalyst for rural development, it is most likely to act as an incentive for the conservation of protected areas.

4.3.2 Negative Impacts of Ecotourism

4.3.2.1 Impacts of Ecotourism on Conservation Areas

It is impossible that ecotourism, based on natural attractions, will not result in some environmental impact. Even if the impacts are negligible, in aggregate they will become more significant over time (Butler, 1991 in Cater, 1994). Cater (1994) states that there is an inherent risk in assuming that the ecotourist is an environmentally sensitive breed. Tourists often visit an area never to return again³, and therefore are unlikely to pay regard to the long-term repercussions of their activities, particularly as they may consider that they have the right to use the natural resource in the significant financial layout they made for the experience (ibid).

Environmental impacts of ecotourism developments in protected areas, are usually the result of visitors exceeding the carrying capacity⁴ of the area. This would not only have a negative effect on the functioning ecosystems of the protected area, but also affect the aesthetic qualities of the area (Boo, 1990). Furthermore, environmental impacts occurring inside protected areas can also result in a spill over effect to adjacent communities. For example, environmental degradation in the park might affect a specific natural resource on which local communities are dependant on for their livelihood.

Consequently, ecotourism will only be a successful industry if natural resources are protected by proper environmental management (Boo, 1993). However, Cater (1994) stressed that the low level of development in Third World countries might preclude them from being able to afford environmental measures that prevent, ameliorate or restore environmental degradation. Furthermore, it is also patently unfair that these countries should bear the environmental costs of such measures, the need for which arises that "ecotourism to the Third World countries is essentially exploiting their carrying capacity" (ibid).

4.3.2.2 Socio-Economic Impacts of Ecotourism

Proponents of ecotourism developments often claim that ecotourism "is a mode of ecodevelopment which represents a practical and effective means of attaining social and

³Cater (1994) states that ecotourists has progressed from small responsible groups to include those of less responsible behaviour. The trend of these tourists are to visit a destination for a few days, unlikely to return. Cater (1994) label this behaviour as "this year the Galapagos, next year Antartica" syndrome.

⁴Refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2

economic improvement for all countries" (Ceballos-Lascurrain, 1991; in Brandon, 1993). However, such claims are more often rhetoric than practice. In many cases, ecotourism has led to numerous problems such as negative impacts on local culture and the creation of socio-economic hardships (Ceballos-Lascurrain, 1991; Boo, 1991; West and Brechin, 1991, in Brandon, 1991).

These problems are often exacerbated by fact that that ecotourism are often promoted by foreign interests. Pleumarom (1994) described the role of the World Bank in encouraging Third World countries to attract tourism⁵. Enloe (1989; in Pleumarom, 1994) stated that "the International politics of debt and the international pursuit of pleasure have become closely knotted together". Prices of land, property and sometimes even local produce are driven relentlessly upward, as result of foreign involvement (Cater, 1994). The result is that ecotourism is not structured to meet the local needs and benefits often leak to outside the area.

The impact of ecotourism on the economy is more significant at local level than at national level. This is due to the fact that the national economy is more diversified and thus not so sensitive to fluctuations in tourism (Boo, 1990). However, traditional rural activities, such as agriculture, logging and hunting, may be limited precisely because of the closing off of protected areas for ecotourism development. Furthermore, as an ecotourism destination's attractiveness declines, many local economies are devastated because it was build solely upon the ecotourism development.

*Tourists, as outsiders with foreign values and behaviours, often affect the local cultural and social conditions. Gurung and De Coursey (1994), state that local communities are often easy prey to the seductiveness of Western consumer culture as tourist are laden with expensive trappings such as hi-tech hiking gear, flashy clothes, cameras and a variety of electronic gadgetry. Furthermore, tourists are often insensitive to local culture and traditions. Jacobsohn (1991) described the negative influence of tourists on the Purros community in Namibia, which resulted in social disruption and increased community conflict. Local people resorted to asking tourists for goods, which not only caused resentment from those who received nothing, but also resulted in a practice local communities saw as conferring status on the tourist.

The previous section discussed the advantages and disadvantages of ecotourism, distinguishing between impacts on conservation, and on the socio-economic environment. The following section deals with ecotourism as a means to integrate protected area conservation and rural

⁵Pleumarom (1994) states that since the 1960's the World Bank have been encouraging Third World countries, especially those with large foreign debts, to attract tourism by providing fiscal concessions and promotional privileges.

development, providing mutual benefits to conservation managers and neighbouring rural communities.

4.4 Ecotourism as Means to Integrate Conservation and Development

Natural areas, and especially protected areas, with their fauna and flora and existing cultural elements, constitute major attractions for people both nationally and internationally. For this reason, conservation organisations are realising the potential of ecotourism, for it could benefit these areas by providing funds for protected areas, create jobs for people who live adjacent to protected areas, and promote environmental education and conservation awareness (Boo, 1993). * Ecotourism supplements conservation benefits and thus increases the economic justification for conservation. As Lindberg and Huber (1993) put it, "ecotourism is the conservation benefit most easily sold".

One of the primary advantages of ecotourism is that it provides an impetus to expand both conservation and development. (Lindberg and Huber, 1993). In order to achieve this goal, ecotourism must be a logical component of sustainable development. In other words, ecotourism must constitute sustainable tourism development. Butler (1991, in Nelson, 1994) defines sustainable tourism development as tourism "which is developed and maintained in an area (community, natural environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human, physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes". Thus, if ecotourism development aims to emphasise its potential to contribute to environmental quality, it must remain a small niche in the global tourism industry. Furthermore, it must remain a grass roots effort firmly based in local economies, and a source of local pride and involvement (Andersen, 1993). This will ensure that the indigenous voice in development, management, and the decision making process has real political weight (Johnson, in Brandon, 1993).

This concludes the section dealing with ecotourism as means to integrate conservation and development. The next section will elaborate on community participation in ecotourism development. The purpose of the following section is not to be viewed in isolation of the previous chapters, but aims to supplement the discussions of integrated conservation and development projects in Chapter 2 and 3.

4.5 Local Community Participation in Ecotourism Development

Tourism developments can rapidly change social and economic situations in local communities with both positive and negative impacts. In developing countries, communities are often excluded from these developments and are left powerless to influence such developments. In addition, projects that fail to encourage local communities in the identification, design, implementation and evaluation of development activities are less likely to provide widespread

community benefits (Cernea, in Brandon, 1993). Furthermore, in many cases provisions for local participation have been included but only as a means of diffusing dissent (Pleumarom, 1994). Thus, in order to achieve a sustainable option which will benefit both conservation and the local community, all interested and affected parties should be involved in ecotourism projects throughout their life-cycle (Nelson, 1994).

There are many advantages of local participation in a project. According to Drake (1991), these are as follows

- ◆ Local participation functions as a early warning system by permitting managers to avoid decisions that are likely to cause animosity between them and the local community. By involving local people at an early stage they will be more likely to benefit from the project and support it
- ◆ Local participation fosters better planning and decision making. Through informed planning and decision making, a wider array of alternatives may be identified and conflicts may be resolved. Coser (1991, in McLaren 1994) states that managed conflict may be quite beneficial both socially and economically rather than a disruptive experience. Disruptive experiences are more likely to be unproductive, Therefore reducing the possibility of achieving effective participation and decisionmaking
- ◆ Ensuring local input legitimises the decisionmaking process. The accountability of project managers is reinforced, and local involvement in the project is secured. Local involvement could also provide valuable information on possible impacts and the appropriate mitigation strategies

(McLaren, 1994)

Finally, Cater (1994) states that local involvement must also extend beyond economic survival, environmental conservation and socio-cultural integrity, to allow appreciation by the community of their own natural resources.

The purpose of the following section is to discuss community involvement in ecotourism development. Using the core principles identified and discussed in previous chapters, local involvement during the project cycle of ecotourism developments are discussed. Furthermore, the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park and the Phinda Resource Reserve, both located in the northern part of KwaZulu/Natal, will be used as case studies to illustrate various points made in the discussion.

4.5.1 The Planning Phase

There has been an increased emphasis on the planning and design of ecotourism projects, as opposed to simply letting ecotourism facilities happen based on market forces. This follows common agreement amongst conservationist that careful planning is necessary to avoid some of the negative side effects of ecotourism (Ceballos-Lascurain, in Brandon, 1993). Therefore, the emphasis of ecotourism development projects must be to promote ecotourism facilities that will provide funds for the conservation of protected areas while generating economic gains for local communities (Wells and Brandon, in Brandon, 1993). Furthermore, Johnson (1990) states that "a socially responsible and environmentally viable tourism cannot be fostered without a dialogue constructed and controlled along indigenous needs and in indigenous terms" (Brandon, 1993). There is thus an extensive need for local participation in the planning and design of ecotourism projects.

Reliable information on the socio-economic, cultural, political and ecological context of the area, is a essential component of ecotourism planning and development. The following section discusses the different requirements for effective data gathering.

4.5.1.1 Information Gathering

The availability of reliable information⁶ on the socio-economic, cultural, and biophysical context of the area is the basis for sound ecotourism planning. During the planning process it will be possible to gather information on local socio-economic structures, identify local needs and priorities and attitudes towards ecotourism. In addition, information gathering provides the ecotourism planner with an opportunity to actively involve the local people, as Johnson (1991) puts it " empowerment starts with access to information" (Brandon, 1993). The following information is needed to ensure that all the potential role players are identified, which is a necessary requisite for effective community participation:

- ◆ Who are the people potentially affected by the project and what broad social groups and authority structures are present?
- ◆ How effective are the grassroots organisations or NGO's involved with the community?
- ◆ What roles do political parties and religious or cultural groups play?
- ◆ How do government agencies communicate with the local community?

(World Bank 1991; in McLaren, 1993)

⁶Refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.4.1.

Furthermore, it is important to inform the local community of the development. There should be a continuous process in exchanging information, allowing sufficient time for effective communication between the various parties involved, as well as within the individuals of the specific groups. This would enable affected parties to explore the various components of the proposed development, and highlight issues of concern. Therefore, it is possible to assess the level of community awareness of the proposed ecotourism development, and to communicate and inform them of certain aspects of the proposed development. More-over, specific information on the needs and preferences of the local community is essential in the planning and design of ecotourism facilities. These include (Boo, 1993):

- ◆ Costs and benefits of tourism for these people?
- ◆ Type of tourism businesses or products that would involve local people?
- ◆ Local products and services sold?
- ◆ For those not involved, or involved on a part-time basis in the tourism development - what other economic activities are there for them in the area?

Ecotourism development is often associated with negative environmental impacts. Some features of both the biophysical and socio-economic environment that are important resources for ecotourism are particularly sensitive to disturbance by human activities (McLaren, 1993). Careful attention should be given to the balance between the volume and type of tourist activity, on the one hand, and the sensitivities and the carrying capacity of the resources being developed on the other. Otherwise tourism projects will not only be environmentally harmful, but also economically self-defeating (Duffield and Walher, in Cater, 1994). Information on the biophysical aspects of the environment, and especially the ecological carrying capacity of the area related to the type of ecotourism development envisaged, is important.

4.5.1.2 Building Institutions

Pleumarom (1994) states that the issue of power is of central importance for local people involved in struggles for their livelihood in the Third World. Local people's criticisms of ecotourism developments tend to be part of a struggle for self realisation, social transformation and development options that put people and often ecological concerns at the forefront (ibid). Social transformation through empowerment can be realised through institution building⁷. Uphoff (1987, in Brandon, 1993) argues that participation through institutions is more likely to

⁷Refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.4.3.

be effective and sustained than individual participation. Thus, local institutions can mobilise people through empowerment, and so actively involve them in ecotourism projects.

Institutions such as community forums or committees should be established to represent the community in ecotourism development proposals. Brandon (1993) stresses the importance of involving different local leaders which could include formal, hidden and opinion leaders. In South Africa, traditional leaders play a prominent role in rural areas, and is thus important to link traditional leadership with these institutions (GEM, 1993).

Boo (1993) proposes the establishment of an ecotourism committee which consists of all representatives of the different interested and affected parties. This ecotourism committee will enable all representatives to share goals for the development of ecotourism in the protected area, and to identify a preferred ecotourism scenario and to formulate goals and strategies to pursue this scenario. Effective communication between various parties is important to ensure the efficient flow of information which would ensure a transparent decisionmaking process.

4.5.1.3 Planning and Design of Ecotourism Facilities

The planning and design of an ecotourism facility should be the product of local involvement and conservation objectives. Wall (1993) states that in order for tourism development to be more sensitive to the local environment and culture, it will be necessary to devise a typology of tourism which will provide for matching of tourism types with environmental, resource, and socio-economic and cultural conditions in different areas.

Planning ecotourism facilities requires an open and flexible process which keep on asking local people about the range of possibilities (Brandon, 1993). Fowkes (1994, *pers. comm.*) differentiate between the consultation, extended involvement, and the joint planning approach of public involvement in a planning process. Consultation with the public refers only to a willingness to alter plans and operations to accommodate their views. Extended involvement means implementing most of their (public) advice, while joint planning allows for serious commitment to local needs in participatory decisionmaking.

Developments must thus be open and flexible to the local context by taking site-specific conditions into account. This will result in trade-off's between development needs and those of the community. Furthermore, ecotourism developments should be planned as part of a regional framework for economic development and should not be seen in isolation of it. Andersen (1993) argues that local involvement in the planning process would make sense for the following reasons:

- ◆ local cultural and ecological knowledge can contribute to the design

- ◆ local involvement and benefits would ensure long term support for ecotourism in the area
- ◆ local involvement can reduce negative cultural impacts

Andersen (1993) states that many ecotourism facilities are both out of touch with nature and the building skills of local trades people. Furthermore, the scale of development is often inappropriate for local communities, and for the environment to cope with. Ecotourism developments should thus be more contextual, providing the visitor with an unique experience of the local natural and socio-cultural conditions. This could be realised by utilising local cultural architectural form, and representing local craftsmen and materials. Local construction methods and materials are also more likely to be a sound environmental proposition, because they involve less transportation and are hence more energy efficient. Furthermore, local construction methods and materials are often more adapted to local site conditions than conventional practices.

This concludes the planning phase of ecotourism development. The following section deals with the construction of ecotourism development facilities.

4.5.2 The Construction of Ecotourism Developments

Construction of ecotourism facilities could provide the local community with employment through labour intensive practices and by involving entrepreneurs. But due to the sensitivity of the natural environment often associated with ecotourism developments, construction of these developments must not only provide socio-economic benefits to local people, but also enhance the natural environment. The construction of the development must thus be economically, socially and ecologically sustainable.

Hill, Bergman and Bowen (1994) outline some key principles which must be upheld in order to achieve economically and socially sustainable construction. These principles include:

- ◆ Ensure that development planning allows for self determination and cultural diversity (Gardner, 1989 in Hill, Bergman and Bowen, 1994) and that the construction process minimises social disruption. In addition, the operation of the development must be compatible with local human systems and technology (Yap, 1989 in Hill, Bergman and Bowen, 1994)
- ◆ Ensure that the social costs of construction are equitably distributed. Where this is not fully achieved, people must be fairly compensated

- ◆ Ensure that the social benefits of construction are equitably distributed. Where this is not achieved, benefits arising out of construction should be optimised, such as employment opportunities

(Hill, Bergman and Bowen, 1994)

In addition, Kibert (1994) proposed a three dimensional model for achieving sustainable construction. It consists of three axis which are: time, resources, and principles. The time axis represents the life-cycle of the project, and the resource axis represents the natural resources involved in construction. These are then interdependent on the principles of sustainable construction which include:

- ◆ Conserve - minimise resource consumption
- ◆ Renew/Recycle - use renewable or recyclable resources
- ◆ Protect Nature - protect the natural environment

(Kibert, 1994)

Thus, to achieve sustainable construction, ecotourism development must utilise local social and cultural resources. This would include architecture and form, as well as local craftsmanship and construction methods. Furthermore, building practices should respect local standards and traditions. Participation of local inhabitants should be encouraged to provide input for the designer as well as a sense of ownership and acceptance by local residents (Andersen, 1993). Ecotourism construction should also be sensitive to the natural environment. Labour intensive construction would minimise negative environmental impacts caused by the use of heavy construction machinery.

The utilisation of local skills and resources in construction, and thereby channeling substantial financial benefits to the local community, is well illustrated in the building of Conservation Corporation's Forest Lodge at the Phinda Resource Reserve. The R7 million Forest Lodge was built without importing virtually any construction skills by using a local community construction team, resulting in a R3 million boost to the local economy (Knoll, 1994). The Lodge constructed by using shop fitted pre-fabricated elements manufactured in urban centres with the result of simple on-site construction methods easily learned by the local construction team. Thus, by removing the complexity from a on-site construction process and transferring

to locations where the skills are available, high standards of construction can be delivered by a largely unskilled construction team⁸.

This concludes the section discussing community participation in ecotourism development⁹. The following section deals with the implementation of ecotourism development.

4.5.3 Implementation of Ecotourism Developments

Ecotourism developments can provide local communities with substantial socio-economic benefits. But, more has to be done than just involving local people in the day to day activities of the development, or just access to income earning opportunities or portion of tourism revenue (Communication Consultants, 1991). Local community participation will ensure that people have a sense of ownership in projects. Successful ecotourism creates stakeholders on many levels, by involving communities through contributions of labour, cash, or other resources (Brandon, 1993).

4.5.3.1 Linking Benefits to Conservation

Linking the socio-economic benefits of ecotourism to the conservation of protected areas, is crucial to the success of any nature based tourism project¹⁰. Ceballos-Lascurain (1991; in Brandon 1993) argues that one justifications for many ecotourism projects is that ecotourism can promote conservation by creating awareness of the importance of protected areas for generating tourism income. Ecotourism is seen as providing socio-economic incentives to rural populations in such a way as to encourage sound resource management by abating destructive practices. But for this to be accomplished, all actions must be perceived as coming from protected area conservation, so that the credit for those benefits will be seen as emanating from conservation (Communication Consultants, 1991).

In order to successfully link benefits to conservation, these benefits must go to those who bear the social and financial costs of the development. Therefore, the benefits of ecotourism must go to the real beneficiaries¹¹ *i.e.* the "producer community". However, these benefits from ecotourism often do not stay in the local areas, or the linkage between the benefits and conservation are indirect and thus weak. Thus, it is necessary to identify and stop leakages

⁸In addition, by using this method of construction as opposed to the conventional approach, the Conservation Corporation saved over R1 million.

⁹Refer to Box 9: Summary of Key Components of Community Participation in Ecotourism Development.

¹⁰Refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.4.7.

¹¹Refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.4.7.1.

in the local economy by ensuring fair the distribution of benefits¹² and encouraging local economic activities.

4.5.3.2 Distributing Benefits to Local Economy

Ecotourism has been embraced by as an opportunity to generate income in areas strained by rural poverty. Although this goals has been achieved in some parts, there is a realisation that little of the money spend by tourists remains at or near the destination (Lindberg, 1991; Boo, 1990; in Lindberg and Huber, 1993). Pleumarom (1994) states that as much as two-thirds of the money tourists spend goes to tour operators, airlines, hotels and imported food and drink. In the Annapurna Conservation Area, while local communities provide accommodation for 40 000 trekkers a year (same number of people as the inhabitants), only 20 cents of average 3 US Dollars spent a day by tourists stays in the village (ibid).

This problem could be approached in different ways (Lindberg and Huber, 1993). Firstly, it is necessary to establish were the money leaks away from the local economy, and there-after establish a programme or action plan to reduce this leakage. Secondly, tourist spending could be increased in the area by developing infrastructure near or at ecotourism destinations. Care should be taken when developing these additional facilities. They should be located preferably outside protected areas to reduce negative ecological impacts while increasing local community participation (ibid). However, care should be taken not to increase negative social and cultural impacts, but these could be reduced by effective community involvement in planning and decision making. Finally, local income could be supplemented by improving the linkages between ecotourism development and the local economy. These include linkages through employment, local handicrafts, entrepreneurs, and linkages with local agriculture.

Employment. This is the most obvious opportunity for local people to benefit from ecotourism developments. In the short term this may center around unskilled labour, but through training, employment opportunities could be provided even in skilled positions, such as managers (Lindberg and Huber, 1993). The distribution of benefits is however limited to the employees and their families and also depends where the money is spend (Brandon and Wells, 1993).

The Natal Parks Board's (NPB) 200 bed Hilltop Camp ecotourism development in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park, provide the local communities with considerable income from employment. Hilltop Camp employs a total number of 74 people, providing the local community with an annual total of wages of over R1.2 million (NPB, 1994).

¹²Refer also to Chapter 3, Section 3.4.7.2.

Local handicrafts and other souvenirs. The selling of souvenirs and local handicrafts are probably one of the most popular ways to benefit from tourist spending. However, there are still tourist developments that sell crafts from other regions and even other countries. Local craftsmanship should be encouraged by using local handicrafts as interior furnishings (Andersen, 1993), or by encouraging local communities to develop their own curio-center.

The Vulamehlo Curio Stall at the Hlulhuwe-Umfolozi Park was developed by the Mambeni community, a rural community living adjacent to the Park. The NPB assisted the community in obtaining the correct training to manufacture the various crafts. There are 52 individuals participation in this curio stall earning an average of R300 a month NPB, 1994).

Local entrepreneurs. Ecotourism developments should encourage the development of self-generating economies around the core-industry (*i.e.* the ecotourism destination) by encouraging entrepreneurship (Cameron, 1994). In addition, local communities should be given priority in any small business opportunity that develops as result of ecotourism (GEM, 1993). Linkages with local entrepreneurs, which could include construction, transport, and maintenance sectors, should be maintained and expanded (Lindberg and Huber, 1993).

Phinda Resource Reserve's Forest Lodge¹³ was constructed by Phinda Construction, a local entrepreneurial business founded by the Conservation Corporation to upgrade skills and provide employment in the area. It employed 110 local unskilled people, with only for skilled people necessary to supervise the project. The bricks for the development was supplied by a local entrepreneur, Zibane Mazibuko, who purchased the brickmaking machinery with the assistance of a Phinda loan (Knoll, 1994).

Agriculture. Substantial tourism expenditures go towards the purchasing of food, much of which is imported from regions far from ecotourism destinations (Miller, 1985 in Lindberg and Huber, 1993). Local farmers could supply developments with fresh produce which would provide them with a sustained income. There must be however a mutual understanding between the ecotourism manager and the local farmers on quality and reliability. Furthermore, the local community could get tourists interested in local cuisine and customs.

The NPB assisted local communities in the Hlulhuwe-Umfolozi Park area to establish two organic gardens. Produce that is not used for home consumption is sold to the Hilltop Camp and hikers on the Hlulhuwe-Umfolozi Park Wilderness Trails (Morrisen, 1995 *pers. comm.*). Furthermore, the NPB initiated a indigenous plant nursery with the help of local Inyangas¹⁴ and

¹³Refer to Section 4.5.2 in this chapter.

¹⁴Traditional healers.

a horticulturist at Memorial Gate, Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park. The plants will be sold to tourists, and will also be used to meet the educational and practical needs of the local community (NPB, 1994).

Finally, ecotourism must be viewed as a limited growth industry, and should not be the only industry on which communities rely for economic support. Although ecotourism might be viewed as the saviour for the rural economically depressed, it must be part of a balanced long term economic plan involving other sustainable industries (Andersen, 1993).

This concludes the implementation of ecotourism development. The monitoring and evaluation of ecotourism developments will be discussed in the next section.

4.5.4 Monitoring and Evaluation of Ecotourism Developments

Monitoring and evaluation¹⁵ could lead to improved communication about what kinds and levels of tourism and related activities are acceptable to the protected area and the users of the area (Nelson, 1994). Furthermore, monitoring and evaluation should be part of an ongoing participation process (Brandon, 1993). Paul (1987; in Brandon, 1993) suggests that a participatory approach to development will increase project effectiveness, and increase the capacity of beneficiaries to take responsibility for project activities. When monitoring and evaluation is part of a participation process, it allows for adjustments and changes to be made as to balance short term and long term benefits. It is important to establish both short and long term benefits to local communities to overcome distrust and scepticism initially, and to ensure sustained benefits on the long term.

Stauth (1983) developed three criteria for evaluating development alternatives: efficiency, equity and sustainability. For a development alternative to be 'unambiguously acceptable' it must meet all three of these criteria, and for it to be superior to other development alternatives it must perform better in these criteria. Stauth defines efficiency, equity and sustainability as follows:

- ◆ efficiency: an action is efficient if at least one member of today's society is made better off without anyone else being made worse off or if gainers could potentially compensate losers and still be better off
- ◆ equity: "an action is equitable if it serves to bring about a situation in which the distribution of costs and benefits to present members of society is considered to be improved"

¹⁵Refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.4.8.

- ◆ sustainability: "an action has acceptable intergenerational effects if the prospects for improvements in future social well-being are not diminished"

Thus, for an ecotourism development to meet the three criteria of efficiency, equity and sustainability, one has to pose the following three questions:

- ◆ **Efficiency** - Does the total benefits of the development outweigh the total costs?
- ◆ **Equity** - Are the benefits and costs of this development distributed fairly?
- ◆ **Sustainability** - Will the benefits of this development continue to outweigh the costs from the point of view of future generations?

(Baseline Report, 1995)

This concludes the section on community involvement in ecotourism development¹⁶. The next section will discuss the concept of community based ecotourism.

BOX 9. SUMMARY OF KEY COMPONENTS OF LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT

KEY COMPONENTS OF ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS	MAIN REQUIREMENTS AND OBJECTIVES
1. Planning Phase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socially responsible and environmentally viable ecotourism must include effective community participation constructed and controlled along indigenous needs and in indigenous terms
1.1 Information Gathering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The availability of reliable information on the socio-economic, cultural, political, and biophysical context of the area is the basis for sound ecotourism planning • Information gathering provides the ecotourism planner with an opportunity to actively involve the local people • It is important that there is a continuous process in the exchange of information between all parties involved
1.2 Building Institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local community participation is more likely to be effective and sustained through institutions than through individual participation • Institutions such as community forums or committees should be established to represent the community in ecotourism development proposals

¹⁶Refer to Box 9: Summary of Key Components of Local Community Participation in Ecotourism Development.

1.3 Planning and Design of Ecotourism Facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ecotourism planning should provide developments that match tourism types with environmental, resource, and socio-economic and cultural conditions in different areas • Ecotourism developments should be planned as part of a regional framework for economic development and should not be seen in isolation of it • Planning ecotourism facilities requires an open and flexible process which effectively involve local communities in planning and decisionmaking • Local community involvement would contribute to design, ensure long-term support, and reduce negative cultural impacts • Ecotourism developments should provide the visitor with an unique experience of the local natural and socio-cultural conditions by utilising local cultural architectural form, and representing local craftsmen and materials
2. Construction of Ecotourism Developments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The construction of the development must be economically, socially and ecologically sustainable by <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ ensuring that the construction process minimizes social disruption, and the operation of the development must be compatible with local human systems and technology; ⇒ ensuring that the social costs of construction are equitably distributed; ⇒ ensuring that the social benefits of construction are equitably distributed; ⇒ conserve natural resources by minimizing resource consumption; ⇒ use renewable or recyclable resources; and ⇒ protect the natural environment • Ecotourism development must utilise local resources by providing employment and incorporate local materials, local craftsmanship and construction methods
3. Implementation of Ecotourism Developments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ecotourism developments can provide local communities with substantial socio-economic benefits through participation, which create stakeholders on many levels, by involving local communities through contributions of labour, cash, or other resources
3.1 Linking Benefits to Conservation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linking the socio-economic benefits of ecotourism to the conservation of protected areas, is crucial to the success of any nature based tourism project • Ecotourism must provide socio-economic incentives to rural populations in such a way as to encourage sound resource management by abating destructive practices
3.2 Distributing Benefits to Local Economy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In order for ecotourism to provide socio-economic benefits to local communities, it is necessary to establish where the money leaks away from the local economy establishing a programme or action plan to reduce this leakage • Tourist spending could be increased in the area by developing infrastructure near or at ecotourism destinations • Local income could be supplemented by improving the linkages between ecotourism development and the local economy through employment, local handicrafts, entrepreneurs, and linkages with local agriculture • It is important that ecotourism must be viewed as a limited growth industry, and thus should not be the singular industry on which communities rely on for economic support

4. Monitoring and Evaluation of Ecotourism Developments

- Monitoring and evaluation could lead to improved communication about what kinds and levels of tourism and related activities are acceptable to the protected area and the users of the area.
- Monitoring and evaluation should be part of an ongoing participation process, thus allowing for adjustments and changes to be made as to balance short term and long term benefits.
- Ecotourism development should meet the three criteria of efficiency, equity and sustainability by asking the following questions:
 - ⇒ Does the total benefits of the development outweigh the total costs?
 - ⇒ Are the benefits and costs of this development distributed fairly?
 - ⇒ Will the benefits of this development continue to outweigh the costs from the point of view of future generations?

4.6 Community Based Tourism

Community based tourism¹⁷ projects are seen as a way to create employment, raising income and provide an opportunity to improve the skills of rural communities (Saunders, 1995). The difference between this type of ecotourism development, and those discussed in the previous sections, evolves around one distinguishable factor, that being community ownership. The community owns the land as oppose to corporate or individual ownership, and is thus dependent on it for its livelihood. Ecotourism development is then implemented as a sustainable land use option.

The initiative for these developments tend to come from non-governmental organisations (NGO's) and community-based organisations (CBO's). However, one of the main constraints to community based tourism projects is the availability of finance. The uncertainty of the land tenure system and the inability of rural communities to put land up as collateral, often result in projects failing to get off the ground (Saunders, 1995). In addition, effective marketing in the competitive tourism industry also reduces the possibility of such projects gaining momentum (Environmental Consultants, 1990). Therefore, the only option for communities is to form partnerships with other institutions for financial and institutional support. The Community Resource Optimisation Programme (CROP), is a NGO that has been involved in several community based tourism projects in KwaZulu/Natal. CROP suggests the following structure for partnerships in community based tourism projects:

± 40 percent community ownership

¹⁷See discussion on the Annapurna Conservation Area and the Campfire Programme, which are both community based tourism projects, in Chapter 3.

± 40 percent consortium or private ownership

± 20 percent NGO

(Saunders, 1995)

This entity would then approach the government, funding institutions and/or donors for financial support. The local community could facilitate cost sharing through contributions of land, money, or labour (Brandon, 1993).

The development of community based tourism projects in South Africa are mainly in the experimental stages. However, these projects need to be underpinned by the core principles and components discussed in the previous sections of this chapter, and in Chapter 2 and 3. It is important that there is real communication and participation; informed decisionmaking in the development process; sustainable management and utilisation and management of resources; that local communities be empowered through institution building; and that benefits are linked to the conservation of their natural resources.

4.7 Conclusion

Sustainable ecotourism development will only be realised through a strong commitment to conservation, and by ensuring local community participation in planning, implementation and management of projects. Thus, ecotourism provides an opportunity to integrate protected area conservation with rural development. In South Africa, most ecotourism destinations in protected areas are situated in impoverished rural areas. These protected areas can thus play a significant role in the upliftment of rural communities by ensuring community participation in ecotourism projects. This would also provide conservationists with an opportunity to enhance conservation objectives by linking socio-economic benefits to neighbouring communities to protected area conservation.

Ecotourism developments are often associated with negative social and cultural impacts. These impacts occur when developments fail to take cognisance of local site conditions and community needs. The planning of ecotourism facilities needs to be based on reliable information on the local ecological, social, political and cultural context. Therefore, community participation should commence at the information gathering phase, and be sustained through all phases of the ecotourism development process. Furthermore, ecotourism could contribute to local economies by providing opportunities for entrepreneurial development, and through direct and indirect employment. However, these opportunities will only be sustained by clearly linking socio-economic benefits to conservation.

Community-based tourism in South Africa is still in its experimental stages. However, this could be a viable option for rural communities living in marginal lands. Furthermore, the main

objective of community-based tourism is empowerment of people through institution building and sustainable resource management. It will encourage communities to abolish destructive resource use practices that result in degradation of their resource base.

This chapter discussed the different components of effective community participation in the ecotourism development process. These components reflect the core principles of integrated conservation and development projects, and supplement previous discussions in Chapter 2 and 3. Chapter 5 will use these principles and components discussed in creating a comprehensive checklist to ensure effective community participation in the development of ecotourism facilities in protected areas. Thereafter, this checklist will be used in Chapter 6 to evaluate the degree of community involvement in the planning of the proposed development at Cathedral Peak, and will guide the following discussion by setting different scenarios for community involvement in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak.

Chapter 5

Checklist for Integrating Conservation and Rural Development

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CHAPTER 5. CHECKLIST FOR INTEGRATING CONSERVATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

5.1 Introduction

There is a growing need in South Africa to integrate protected area conservation with rural development in adjacent areas. With the current social and political changes taking place in South Africa, accompanied by the subsequent quest for productive land, protected areas are under increased pressure to justify their existence.

There are two main reasons stipulating the need to integrate conservation and development. Firstly, protected areas will only survive if the attitudes and perceptions of neighbouring communities towards conservation are changed. This could only be realised by ensuring local community participation in planning and decisionmaking, and by providing these people with tangible benefits from conservation. Secondly, rural communities need socio-economic upliftment and community empowerment in order to improve their quality of life. Conservation related developments could provide money-earning opportunities which could diversify local economies. In addition, access to and sustainable utilisation of natural resources in protected areas could broaden the resource base of surrounding communities.

The purpose of this chapter is to generate a checklist for maximizing community participation in ecotourism development and associated activities, in order to ensure the integration of protected area conservation and sustainable rural development. The aim of this Checklist is to guide and assist conservation planners and managers to ensure effective community participation in ecotourism developments and associated activities in protected areas. Furthermore, the Checklist would be used to guide the discussion in Chapter 6 on different ecotourism development scenario's for Cathedral Peak.

5.2 The Need for a Checklist

Despite various policies and objectives¹ stipulating the need to integrate conservation and development, and growing interest in the integrated conservation and development approach, few developments sustain effective community participation. This is often the case in South Africa, where conservation agencies often lack commitment, expertise, or the resources needed for successful integration of conservation and rural development.

Conservation agencies need a radical approach to ensure local community participation in ecotourism development, and the conservation of protected areas. They need to convert their neighbour relation policies in to tangible benefits for those living adjacent to their protected

¹Refer to Chapter 2: Rationale for Integrating Conservation and Development, and Chapter 3: Integrating Conservation and Rural Development.

areas. Local people need to have a say in the development that affects them, and only by doing just that would such development be able to link the socio-economic benefits of these developments to conservation. There is a need for a tool which can be used by conservation area managers and ecotourism developers alike, which would ensure that the local community and the conservation organisation form a partnership for mutual benefit. This Checklist is intended to promote ecotourism development as a vehicle to integrate protected area conservation and rural development. The aim of the Checklist is to guide and assist conservation organisations to ensure local community participation in all phases of ecotourism development.

The next section deals with the methodology used in establishing and structuring this Checklist.

5.3 Methodology

The previous chapters discussed different principles and components for integrating conservation and development. Furthermore, the potential of ecotourism development as means to integrate protected area conservation and rural development, was explored. The Checklist is based on the core principles identified in Chapter 2, the components necessary for integrated conservation and development discussed in Chapter 3, and the various components and phases of ecotourism development which were dealt with in Chapter 4. A brief overview of these discussions in Chapter 2, 3, and 4 is listed below.

In Chapter 2, seven key principles were identified for the integration of protected area conservation and rural development. These principles are the following:

- ◆ **the conservation of biological diversity**
- ◆ **the need for sustainable development**
- ◆ **effective local participation in planning, management and decisionmaking**
- ◆ **local community empowerment through the process of institution building**
- ◆ **sustainable utilisation and equitable access to resources**
- ◆ **response to local socio-economic, cultural and political context**
- ◆ **link socio-economic benefits to conservation**

In Chapter 3, these key principles guided the discussion of the various components of integrated conservation and development projects. In addition, the requirements for the implementation of these principles and components were identified by means of case studies. The principles components necessary for the successful implementation of integrated conservation and development projects are the following:

- ◆ **Gathering Site-Specific Information** in order to ensure an adequate knowledge of local social, economic, ecological, cultural, and administrative factors that shape resource use patterns
- ◆ **Encouraging Local Community Participation** by encouraging a participatory approach in integrated conservation and development projects as to ensure local community participation in all aspects of protected area planning and management
- ◆ **Building Institutions** in order to sustain local participation in integrated conservation and development projects. Institutions would also help to organise communities in administrative, planning and management structures and empower them by the creation of procedures from democratic decisionmaking
- ◆ **Forming Partnerships** between different participatory organisations in order to effectively link ecosystem protection and economic development in integrated conservation and development projects
- ◆ **Sustainable Utilisation of Resources** by encouraging community participation in planning and management of natural resources, as well as by providing alternatives to prevent resource depletion
- ◆ **Linking Socio-Economic Benefits to Conservation** by identifying and distributing the benefits of integrated conservation and development projects to the community who pays the financial and social costs of conservation and development, and who therefore act as the “producer community”
- ◆ **Monitor and Evaluate** integrated conservation and development projects in order to determine how the project has contributed to the conservation of biological diversity, and to determine what type activities are acceptable in the area

Chapter 4 dealt with ecotourism development and the potential of ecotourism development projects to integrate protected area conservation and rural development. The discussions in Chapter 4 echoed the principles and components identified in Chapter 3, and elaborated on the different requirements for the successful implementation of these principles and components.

Furthermore, these components were integrated into the different phases of an ecotourism development project. Thus, Chapter 4 must be seen as a supplementary chapter to Chapter 2 and 3. The four phases, and the different components necessary for the successful implementation of each phase, as discussed in Chapter 4, are as follows:

- ◆ **The Planning Phase** which consists of the following:
 - **Gathering Site-Specific Information**
 - **Building Institutions**
 - **Planning and Design** of ecotourism facilities
- ◆ **The Construction Phase**
- ◆ **The Implementation Phase** which consists of the following:
 - **Linking Benefits to Conservation**
 - **Distributing the Benefits** to the local economy
- ◆ **Monitoring and Evaluation**

The aim of the Checklist is to provide guidelines for maximizing community participation in ecotourism development and associated activities, in order to ensure the integration of protected area conservation and rural development. The Checklist is structured according to the four development phases of ecotourism development projects². Listed under each of these phases, are the various components³ necessary for the implementation of each phase, and guidelines to ensure that each component complies with the requirements⁴ necessary to

²As discussed in Chapter 4.

³The aim of the Checklist is to provide guidelines for community participation in ecotourism developments as well as activities associated with these developments in and adjacent to protected areas. Thus, it integrates the different components of integrated conservation and development projects identified and discussed in Chapter 3, and the subsequent supplementary discussions of these components in Chapter 4.

⁴Requirements for the successful implementation of each component was discussed in chapter 3, as well as and Chapter 4 dealt with additional requirements for the implementation of these components.

successful implement these components. There-after, the process followed in implementing each of these components, is tested against the principles underpinning the successful integration of protected area conservation and sustainable rural development.

5.4 Checklist for Maximizing Community Participation in Ecotourism Development in order to ensure the Integration of Protected Area Conservation and Sustainable Rural Development

This checklist provide guidelines to maximize community involvement in ecotourism development projects in order to ensure the successful integration of protected area conservation and sustainable rural development. The checklist is structured according to the different phases⁵ of an ecotourism development project. These consist of the following:

- ♦ **The Planning Phase**
- ♦ **The Construction Phase**
- ♦ **The Implementation Phase**
- ♦ **Monitoring and Evaluation**

The above mentioned sections are further divided into its different components. These components provide the user of this Checklist with a list of requirements for the implementation of each of the components, as well as guidelines to evaluate the process followed in implementing these components. The list of requirements are intended as a general guide only and should not be considered a complete list of criteria.

5.4.1 The Planning Phase

This section provides guidelines for the planning phase of ecotourism developments projects. The planning phase consists of the following components:

- ♦ *Information Gathering*
- ♦ *Planning and Management of Resources*
- ♦ *Planning and Design of Ecotourism Facilities*
- ♦ *Building Institutions*

⁵ Refer to Chapter 4.

5.4.1.1 Information Gathering

This section provides guidelines for the different types of information needed for the planning and design of ecotourism developments. The section is structured as follows:

A. Information Required

B. Evaluation of the Process

A. Information Required

The following section provides a guideline for types of site-specific information that should be obtained:

- Information on the **Bio-physical data** of the development site, as well as the surrounding area should include:
 - existing physical boundaries
 - geomorphological regions of the area
 - macro and micro climates
 - geology
 - hydrology
 - soils types
 - plant cover
 - fauna
 - ecological carrying capacity of the area
- Information on **Land Use and Landscape Character** of the area should include:
 - existing infrastructure
 - existing land uses in the area
 - visual and landscape character

- sense of place within the area
- political issues such as land claims and land rights
- regional structure plans and planning frameworks

■ **Information on Policy, Legal and Administrative Requirements** should include:

- international policy, legal and administrative requirements
- national policy, legal and administrative requirements
- regional policy, legal and administrative requirements

■ **Information on Socio-Economic Characteristics** of neighbouring communities should include:

- demographic data
- existing social groups and authority structures
- political parties, religious and cultural groups present
- distribution of income
- household structures e.g. head of household, number of persons living at a particular household etc.
- formal and informal employment
- local industries
- unemployment and dependency ratio
- education and training
- labour needs and spare labour capacity of area

■ **Information on Tourism** in the area should include:

- costs and benefits of tourism development
- types of tourism development that would involve local people
- local products and services sold

■ **Information on Cultural Resources** in the area should include:

- sites of archeological importance
- sites of religious or spiritual significance
- sites of special social and cultural importance

B. Evaluation of the Information Gathering Process

In order to achieve effective community participation in the Information Gathering Process, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- Did the information gathering process manage to **socially differentiate and disaggregate** the local community?
- Did the information gathering process **utilise local traditional knowledge and technology**?
- Were the information gathering **methods flexible and adapted to the specific situation**?
- Did the information gathering process **consult disadvantaged and marginalised groups** in the community?
- Was there a **continuous process of exchanging information**, and did the information gathering process allow **sufficient time for effective communication between the various parties involved**?
- Did the information gathering process **concentrate on the most important data by analysing information in the field and presenting the results to the people involved**?
- Did the information gathering process use **appropriate methods and materials** in order to **visually present information** to illiterate communities?

- Did the information gathering process make use of a **diversity of opinions and sources** in order to get a more complete picture of the situation?

5.4.1.2 Planning and Management of Resources

This section provides guidelines for planning and management of resources. The section is structured as follows:

- A. Ecosystem Analysis
- B. Determining Different Needs for Resource Use
- C. Drawing up a Management Plan for Sustainable Utilisation of Resources
- D. Resource Utilisation and Management
- E. Providing Alternatives to Prevent Resource Depletion
- F. Evaluation of the Process

A. Ecosystem Analysis

In order to determine the value of an ecosystem, one should:

- commission specialist studies on ecological systems and processes
- analyse information in order to determine the inherent value of the ecosystem

B. Determine Different Needs for Resources Use

In order to determine the different resource use needs, one should:

- determine the resource needs of the local communities
- determine the resource needs of ecotourism development, which depends on:
 - type of tourism development planned
 - number of tourists envisaged
 - tourists activities planned

C. Draw up a Management Plan for Sustainable Utilisation of Resources

In order to draw up a management plan for the sustainable utilisation of natural resources, one should:

- determine the carrying capacity of the area which consists of:
 - ecological carrying capacity
 - aesthetic carrying capacity
- determine the sustainable offtake of natural resources
- balance community's needs with those of the ecotourism development (trade-off's)
- by means of ecological land planning determine different land use areas
- draw up an Environmental Management Plan for the sustainable utilisation of natural resources

D. Resource Utilisation and Management

In order to sustainable effective resource utilisation and management, one should:

- establish community institution to manage resource use and distribute the benefits derived from resources utilisation
- ensure that resource utilisation is in accordance with the Environmental Management Plan and does not exceed the carrying capacity of the area

E. Provide Alternatives to Prevent Resource Depletion

In order to provide alternatives to prevent resource depletion, one should:

- encourage the substitution of more intensive production systems for existing extensive systems to reduce future pressure on the protected area
- reduce environmental degradation by increasing the community's resource base through:
 - promoting the establishment of agro-forestry practices
 - establishing food gardens

- establishing indigenous plant nurseries

- encourage sustainable agricultural practices such as permaculture

F. Evaluation of the Planning and Management of Resources Process

In order to achieve effective community participation in the Planning and Management of Resources, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- Does the process ensure effective **local participation in planning and management of resources?**
- Does the resource planning and management process ensure that local communities have **equitable access to natural resources?**
- Does the resource planning and management process **link socio-economic benefits derived from resource utilisation to the conservation and management of these resources**, so as to provide **incentives for conservation of the protected area?**
- Does the resource planning and management process **encourage traditional resource use practices?**
- Does the resource planning and management process allow for **technical solutions suitable to the local context?**
- Does the resource planning and management process make provision to **incorporate the local needs for resource utilisation?**
- Does the resource planning and management process ensure the **protection of biodiversity by promoting sustainable resource use practices?**
- Does the resource planning and management process provide **alternatives to destructive resource use practices?**

5.4.1.3 Planning and Design of Ecotourism Facilities

This section provides guidelines for the planning and design of ecotourism developments. The section is structured as follows:

A. Planning of Ecotourism Developments

B. Design of Ecotourism Facilities

C. Evaluation of the Process

A. Planning of Ecotourism Developments

In order to encourage participation in planning ecotourism developments, one should:

- encourage the local community to elect community representatives for an ecotourism development committee
- allow the various representatives to select an ecotourism development and planning committee
- encourage all representatives from interested and affected parties to share information and goals for the development of ecotourism in the area
- discuss and transfer information in order to identify common priorities and opportunities
- identify different ecotourism scenario's
- identify the preferred ecotourism scenario

B. Design of Ecotourism Facilities

In order to minimise the negative impacts of ecotourism facilities, one should:

- ensure the design of environmental sensitive ecotourism developments
- incorporate unique natural features in the design of ecotourism facilities
- utilise local cultural and ecological knowledge in the siting and design of ecotourism facilities
- incorporate local architectural form and materials in the design of ecotourism facilities
- ensure the scale of ecotourism facilities is appropriate to the local context
- promote local crafts by using them for decoration and interior furnishings
- design facilities in such a way as to promote the use of local craftspeople and local skills

- plan and design ecotourism facilities in such a way as to promote local construction methods and materials

C. Evaluation of the Planning and Design of Ecotourism Facilities Process

In order to achieve effective community participation in the Planning and Design of Ecotourism Facilities, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- Is the ecotourism development in accordance with **regional planning and development frameworks**?
- Does the ecotourism development **reflect the socio-cultural context** of the area?
- Did the ecotourism planning and design process **ensure local participation in the identification of ecotourism development options**?
- Did the ecotourism development process **ensure local participation in the planning and design of ecotourism facilities**?
- Did the ecotourism development **process consider ecological systems and processes so as to minimise its impact on the environment**?
- Will the ecotourism development **promote environmental awareness** in the local community by **linking socio-economic benefits to conservation**?
- Will the ecotourism development **enhance the conservation objectives of the protected area**?
- Will the ecotourism development **ensure local participation in the day to day operation of its activities**?
- Will the ecotourism development **provide income-earning opportunities** to the local community?
- Will the ecotourism development **utilise local skills, materials and construction methods**?

5.4.1.4 Building Institutions

This section provides guidelines for institution building. The section is structured as follows:

A. Establishing Institutions

B. Evaluation of the Process

A. Establishing Institutions

In order to build local community institutions, one should:

- identify, and encourage the participation of community leaders which include:
 - traditional and spiritual leaders
 - formal, hidden and opinion leaders
- elect community representatives to serve on these institutional structures
- encourage the participation of interested and affected parties
- establish community institutions for a particular planning, management and decisionmaking demand
- encourage the establishment of partnerships between community institutions and other participating organisations

B. Evaluation of the Institution Building Process

In order to achieve effective community participation in Institution Building, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- Was the establishment of institutions a **community driven process**?
- Are the **members of these institutions democratically elected** and thus **representative of the community**?
- Do these institutions allow for **effective communication** with the local community to ensure **transparent decisionmaking** ?
- Are these institutions **accountable** to the local community on all aspects of their activities?
- Do these institutions allow for **effective community participation in decisionmaking**?

5.4.2 The Construction Phase

This section provides guidelines for the construction phase of ecotourism development projects. The section is structured as follows:

A. Construction of Ecotourism Developments

B. Evaluation of the Process

A. The Construction of Ecotourism Developments

In order to maximise local community benefits in the construction of ecotourism facilities, one should:

- provide local employment through labour intensive practices
- encourage local entrepreneurship in the any services or activities associated with construction
- utilise local social and cultural resources such as:
 - craftsmanship and skills
 - construction methods
 - local building materials
 - architecture and form
- promote training and the acquisition of construction skills to the local people
- ensure construction methods and practices are sensitive to the natural environment
- encourage labour intensive practices to minimise impacts of construction machinery on the natural environment

B. Evaluation of the Construction Process

In order to achieve effective community participation in the Construction of Ecotourism Facilities, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- Will the construction methods used **minimise social costs** to the local community?

- Will the construction methods used be **compatible with local human systems and technologies**?
- Will the **social costs** of construction be **equitably distributed**, and if not does it allow for **compensation**?
- Will the **social benefits** of construction be **equitably distributed**, and if not does the process of construction allow for **local employment opportunities**?
- Do the construction methods used in the construction of the ecotourism development allow for the **use of recyclable and renewable resources**?
- Was the aim of the construction methods used to **minimise resource consumption**?
- Did the construction methods and practices used **utilise local social** (e.g. local skills) **and cultural** (e.g. traditional construction methods) **resources**?
- Did the construction methods used **minimise the negative impact on the natural environment**?

5.4.3 The Implementation Phase

This section provides guidelines for the implementation phase of ecotourism development projects. The implementation phase consists of the following components:

- ◆ *Building the Local Economy*
- ◆ *Distributing the Benefits of Ecotourism*

5.4.3.1 Building the Local Economy

This section provides guidelines for the building of the local economy. The section is structured as follows:

- A. Providing income-earning opportunities
- B. Evaluation of the Process

A. Providing Income-Earning Opportunities

In order to provide income-earning opportunities to the local community, one should:

- increase tourist spending in the local communities by providing infrastructure near or at tourist destinations
- supplement community income by linking ecotourism development to local economy by:
 - providing employment to the local community
 - providing the opportunity for, and encouraging local entrepreneurial activities
 - promote the selling of local handicrafts
 - linking local agriculture and fisheries with the ecotourism development
 - get tourists interested in local traditions e.g. local cuisine
- encourage the establishment of partnerships between local community and ecotourism development
- establish where the money leaks away from the local economy, as to establish a programme or action plan to reduce this leakage

B. Evaluation of the Building the Economy Process

In order to maximise benefits to the local economy as well as to the protected area, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- **Are the socio-economic benefits of the ecotourism development linked to the conservation of the protected area to provide incentives for local communities to protect natural resources?**
- **Does the ecotourism development ensure local community participation in the identification, design and implementation of activities?**
- **Does the ecotourism development have a commitment to and a sense of social and cultural responsibility?**
- **Does the ecotourism development establish local stakeholders in the development by forming partnerships with the local community?**

- Does the ecotourism development provide **preferential employment** to the local community?
- Do the ecotourism related activities have a **minimal impact on the environment** and **enhance conservation objectives of the protected area**?

5.4.3.2 Distributing the Benefits of Ecotourism

This section provides guidelines for distributing the benefits of ecotourism developments. The section is structured as follows:

A. Distributing the Benefits

B. Evaluation of the Process

A. Distributing the Benefits

In order to distribute the benefits of ecotourism development fairly to the local community, one should give the community a choice of one or a combination of the following:

- payment in cash:
 - need to identify producer communities *i.e.* those who pay the social and financial cost of conservation, and those who contribute the most benefits to conservation by sustainable management and utilisation of their resources
 - distribute the cash amongst these communities in direct proportion to their contribution
 - need to define what constitutes a household in these communities
 - distribute the cash equally amongst these households
- establishing a community trust:
 - need to identify the "producer community"
 - establish objectives of the trust
 - generate criteria for distribution of funds
 - elect the trustees

■ social services

- establish a local planning and management committee to implement these projects

B. Evaluation of the Benefit Distribution Process

In order to distribute the benefits fairly to the local community, and link socio-economic benefits to the conservation of the protected area, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- Are the socio-economic benefits linked to the conservation of the protected area as to provide incentives for local communities to protect natural resources?
- Were the “producer communities” identified as those who pay the highest social and financial cost of conservation?
- Did the benefits go to the community who bear the highest financial and social cost of conservation?
- Were producer communities given a choice on how to spend their benefits?
- Was the establishment of the management committee a community driven process?
- Were members of these institutions democratically elected and thus representative of the community?
- Do these institutions allow for effective communication with the local community to ensure a transparent decisionmaking ?
- Are these institutions accountable to the local community on all aspects of their activities?
- Do these institutions allow for effective community participation in decisionmaking?

5.4.4 Monitoring and Evaluation

This section provides guidelines for monitoring and evaluation of ecotourism development projects. The section is structured as follows:

A. Monitoring

B. Evaluation

C. Evaluation of the Process

A. Monitoring

The Monitoring process should include the following:

- develop an Environmental Management Plan which includes:
 - environmental objectives and targets to be met
 - set performance indicators to meet these objectives and targets
 - operational procedures for controlling various activities
- record data and compare with the performance indicators which was set to reflect objectives
- undertake periodic audits of environmental performance which compare initial goals with subsequent progress made

B. Evaluation

In order to evaluate ecotourism developments, they must meet the following criteria:

- **Efficiency**
 - Does the total benefits of the development outweigh the total costs?
- **Equity**
 - Are the benefits and costs of this development distributed fairly?
- **Sustainability**
 - Will the benefits of this development continue to outweigh the costs from the point of view of future generations?

C. Evaluation of the Process

In order to ensure effective community participation in the monitoring and evaluation process, one would require an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- Was monitoring and evaluation **part of the ongoing community participation process?**
- Does the monitoring and evaluation process allow for **adjustments and changes** to be made, in order to **balance long and short term benefits** of the ecotourism project?

5.5 Conclusion

This concludes the Checklist for maximizing community participation in ecotourism developments. The next chapter deals with different ecotourism development scenario's for Cathedral Peak . The Checklist would be used to guide the discussions in Chapter 6 on the different ecotourism development scenario's for Cathedral Peak.

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CHAPTER 6. THE CATHEDRAL PEAK CASE STUDY, NATAL DRAKENSBERG PARK

6.1 Introduction

The Natal Parks Board identified Cathedral Peak, in the Natal Drakensberg Park, as a node for the development of a hutted camp. This type of ecotourism development would increase the spectrum of accommodation facilities offered to visitors in the area, and occurs within the context of the proposed upgrading of the existing campsite, day-visitors facilities, entrance gate and craft market at Cathedral Peak. In addition, the NPB envisaged that the development of a hutted camp would increase employment opportunities to adjacent rural communities, thus providing these communities with substantial socio-economic benefits (NPB's Statement of Intent, Baseline Report).

The purpose of this chapter is to set two different scenarios for ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak. Firstly, a brief discussion on the biophysical and socio-economic context of Cathedral Peak. There-after, the two ecotourism development scenarios for Cathedral Peak will be discussed. The first scenario is based on NPB's proposal to develop a 200 bed luxury hutted camp at Cathedral Peak. The discussion of this scenario is guided by NPB's planning process to date, as well as by the information contained in the Baseline Report. The second ecotourism development scenario is developed out of an evaluative discussion on the first scenario, guided by the Checklist generated in Chapter 5. However, NPB's proposed development at Cathedral Peak is only in the planning phase, thus most of the discussions of the ecotourism development scenarios are based on a hypothetical situation for ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak.

Finally, this Chapter will conclude the discussion on the different ecotourism scenarios for Cathedral Peak, and will provide recommendations on how the NPB can maximise community participation in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak.

6.2 The Local Context

The Cathedral Peak Area is situated in the Northern Drakensberg, the upper part of the Drakensberg mountains which extend the full length of the KwaZulu/Natal - Lesotho border from Royal Natal National Park in the north to Sehlabathebe National Park in the south (Refer to Map 1). The study area is situated approximately 200 km north west of Pietermaritzburg, bordered by the Upper Tugela Location to the north, the rural settlements of the Okhahlamba district to the east, Monk's Cowl State Forest in the south, and the Lesotho border on the western side (Baseline Report, 1995).

The study area includes the Cathedral Peak State Forest, a 32 000 ha area which forms part of the Drakensberg Park, as well as the surrounding rural settlements of the eMhlwazini ward.

6.2.1 Landscape Character and Land Use

The study area lies within the Drakensberg mountains, with its magnificent landforms which are the result of 140 million years of erosion. The Cathedral Peak Area is renowned for its impressive escarpment and scenic peaks. Cathedral Peak, the Bell, and the inner and outer Horn are the dominant features of this impressive skyline. Below the basalt escarpment lies the Little Berg with the Clarens sandstone cliffs, waterfalls and indigenous forests. Various spurs and valleys of the area create a spectacular landscape with ever-changing moods. The eMhlwazini river, flowing from the south, joins the uMlambonja river which winds its way through the rural communities in an easterly direction.

The land use of the area consists mainly of tourist-orientated development within the Drakensberg Park, and subsistence agriculture in the eMhlwazini ward and surrounding areas. The Cathedral Peak Hotel is the most western development in the uMlambonja valley, and is surrounded by a golf course and pine plantations to the north. The Natal Parks Board office and CSIR research station are situated at the old Forest station east of the Cathedral Peak Hotel. The access road to Cathedral Peak snakes its way through the rural areas in the east, and is the only access road into the area. The rural areas, comprise mainly of thatch roof huts that are grouped to form households. The surrounding areas are used for subsistence farming, as well as grazing for cattle.

6.2.2 The Bio-Physical Environment

6.2.2.1 Climate and Rainfall

The Drakensberg is characterised by hot, wet summers and cool, very dry winters. The local weather conditions of the area may change significantly over a short time span, as result of the interaction between topography, altitude, and distance from the escarpment. Topography is an important determinant of the local mesoscale climate, generating topographical winds and influencing the distribution of precipitation. Altitude and slope aspect are additional influences on local climatic conditions, which in combination with topography determine the microclimate of different areas.

The topography influences rainfall distribution such that the highest annual totals of approximately 1800 mm are recorded just below the brim of the escarpment. The lowest annual rainfall average of approximately 700 mm falls to the north-east, and to the south of the Drakensberg (Baseline Report). The mean annual rainfall at Cathedral Peak is 1299 mm, of which approximately 900 mm falls in the summer (October to March), and only approximately 130 mm in the winter months of May to August. Furthermore, thunderstorms are common in the Drakensberg in the summer, and usually occur in the middle to late afternoons. These thunderstorms are often torrential, may develop rapidly, and are often associated with lightning which could be hazardous to hikers. The highly seasonal rainfall in the Drakensberg also

results in the possibility of droughts in the winter months. At Cathedral Peak, the rural areas do experience droughts and water deficiencies do occur during winter months.

6.2.2.2 Geomorphology, Geology and Soils

The geomorphology and geology of the Drakensberg consists mainly of horizontal rock formations of igneous and sandstone types, although shales and mudstones are also present. These formations are part of the Upper Beaufort and Stormberg Series. The Stormberg Series is further divided into the Molteno Red Beds, Cave Sandstone and Stormberg Basalts.

The soils are the shallowest on steep slopes and the deepest on flatter areas. The shallow nature of the soil on steep areas, combined with the high rainfall of the region, results in soils that are highly susceptible to erosion when overgrazed, when the vegetation cover is removed for construction purposes, or as result of the careless development of paths (Irwin, 1992). Erosion scars and barren areas rarely recover unaided since revegetation with indigenous species is usually a slow process, and is further made more difficult as result of the destabilised soils.

6.2.2.3 Hydrology

The Drakensberg Catchment Area constitutes one of South Africa's major sources of water, with large annual and seasonal supplies available to supplement deficits elsewhere. Streamflow in the Cathedral Peak area amounts to approximately 45-50 percent of the mean annual rainfall. Approximately 84 percent of the rainfall occurs from the 1st of October to the 31st of March, while 67 percent of the total annual streamflow is delivered during the months of January to April (Everson, 1995; in Baseline Report Volume 3).

Overland flow in undisturbed catchments in the Cathedral Peak area is negligible and erosion low (Everson, 1995; in Baseline Report Volume 3). However, once the vegetation is disturbed or removed, regrowth is slow and erosion increases. This emphasizes the need to reclaim disturbed areas as soon as possible to reduce erosion.

The uMlambonja and the eMhlwazini rivers are the two main rivers flowing through the study area. The uMlambonja river joins the eMhlwazini river in the eMhlwazini ward, which is situated to east of the Drakensberg Park. Because of the importance of the area as a major catchment area, both these rivers are listed as Schedule 1 rivers in terms of the Water Act 54 of 1956. Therefore, any effluent discharged into these rivers, as in the case of a substantial development in this area, must comply with the standards set out in terms of Section 21 of the Water Act.

6.2.2.4 Vegetation

Killick (1963; in Baseline Report Volume 1), proposed an ecological model which divides the Natal Drakensberg in three ecological zones, listed from the lowest to the highest:

- ◆ Montane - from 1280m to the top of the Clarens Formation at approximately 1830m
- ◆ Sub-Alpine - from the Clarens Formation to the edge of the escarpment at approximately 2860m
- ◆ Alpine - from 2860m to approximately 3353m (the highest point of the summit plateau)

The Drakensberg is covered mostly by grassland which Acocks (1988, in Baseline Report volume 1) divided into two veldtypes: Highland Sourveld (1350m to 2150m), and Festuca Themeda (2150m to 3353m). These veldtypes coincide roughly with Killick's altitudinal belts.

In addition, there are several areas in Cathedral Peak in which invasive alien species have established themselves. These aliens consist of pines (*Pinus patula*) in the plantations to the north of Cathedral Peak Hotel, and stands of *Eucalyptus spp.*, white poplar *Populus canescens*, and a variety of wattles *Acacia spp.*

6.2.2.5 Fauna

The protected area of the Drakensberg Park plays an important role in the conservation of South Africa's birdlife. In the Cathedral Peak Area alone, over 200 species of birds have been identified (Osbourne and Marchant, in Baseline Report Volume 3). Amongst these are the endangered Wattled Crane and Cape Vulture, as well as the Bald Ibis, Orange-breasted Rockjumper and Yellow-breasted Pipit. Several birds which are rare or threatened in other parts of the country, like the Bearded Vulture and White Stork, are also found in the Cathedral Peak Area (Irwin, 1992).

The Cathedral Peak Area also provides habitats for a range of small mammals and reptiles. Some of these mammals and reptiles are rated by the South African Red Data Book (SARDB) as either rare, vulnerable or restricted. Rare mammals include the African Striped Weasel and the Serval; vulnerable mammals are the African Wild Cat and Oribi; and reptiles with a restricted rating are the Spiny Crag Lizard and Lang's Crag Lizard (Rowe-Rowe and Bourquin, in Baseline Report Volume 3). In addition, over 20 species of mammals and lizards found in the Cathedral Peak Area are given the Natal Importance Rating, which is based on data collected on the distribution and numerical status of these mammals and reptiles, as well as on their conservation or utilisation value (ibid).

6.2.3 The Socio-Economic Environment

Details of the Socio-Economic Survey are contained in the Baseline Report, *Volume 2: Public Participation Report*. The following information was extrapolated from the 347 people sample group used in the socio-economic survey, to represent the approximately 2700 residents in the eMhlwazini ward (Refer to Map 2).

6.2.3.1 Community Profile

The total population of the eMhlwazini ward is approximately 2700 people, with a population density of almost 338 people per square kilometer. This is two and a half times the average density recorded in other regions of the former KwaZulu. The average number of people per household is twelve, of which 42 percent are adults. The average monthly income per household is R431, which included income from formal and informal employment, pensions, as well as money received from migrant labourers. Only 24 percent of the potentially economic active residents are formally employed, of which 75 percent consist of migrant workers. Furthermore, only 25 percent of formal employment in the ward is derived from the local area, that being either employment by the NPB, Cathedral Peak Hotel, schools and shops locally, or in Bergville, Winterton, and Escourt.

As much as 70 percent of households in the eMhlwazini ward are involved in informal income opportunities. These included the running of spaza shops and shebeens, or the selling of handicrafts, dagga, traditional medicine, and thatching grass. Some of the residents were selling vegetables and fastfoods at informal markets and schools. However, the number of women who are self-employed is substantially higher than men, probably due to the fact that activities such as craft-making, sewing and the selling of grass are almost exclusively the domain of women.

Approximately 70 percent of the households in the eMhlwazini ward are headed by men. Only 50 percent of the household in the area have three generations living in them. However, of these households, 17 percent were completely dependent upon pensions for their monthly income. Furthermore, the dependency ratio in the eMhlwazini ward is approximately 1:6. This figure is one and a half times higher than the 3:9 dependency ratio recorded in other of the former KwaZulu regions.

Food and schooling fees were identified as major household expenses, with expenditure on food consuming approximately 75 percent on the monthly income. Almost 24 percent of the community did all their shopping outside the local area, either in Bergville, Winterton, Estcourt or Ladysmith. This was mainly due to the higher costs of goods and services in the eMhlwazini ward and surrounding areas. Other expenses identified, but unquantifiable, included building expenses, transport, medicine, synthetic fuels and clothing. The acquisition of natural resources such as wood and grass, took up the rest of the expenses.

6.2.3.2 The Need for Services

The need for education facilities such as secondary schools and a technicon were emphasized by the local residents. The ward is served by only one primary school and has no secondary schools. Many of the residents suggested that the NPB should become directly involved in the establishment of such facilities. Furthermore, they also indicated that there is a need for the NPB to assist in adult education programmes to improve skills in craft-work, vegetable gardening, construction practices and other associated activities.

Only 13 percent of the local residents used water from the eMhlwazini and uMhlambonja rivers as drinking water, the rest drawing water from springs, communal wells and taps. The water from these two rivers is mainly used for washing and recreation (Refer to Plate 3). Furthermore, besides comments from school teachers, none of the residents interviewed referred to water supply or water quality as a problem. Although the community had an adequate supply of drinking water, 23 percent of the residents felt that their closest water collection point was "far".

There are power lines running from Winterton which supply the Cathedral Peak Hotel and NPB facilities with electricity. However, none of the homesteads in the eMhlwazini ward are currently being supplied with electricity. Recent Eskom activities in the nearby Emmaus area suggest that electrification of this area is probable in the near future. Currently, wood is used as the main source of energy for cooking and heating.

There is a need for access to primary health care services in the ward, with the closest hospital at Emmaus being almost 20 km from the area. In addition, due to the lack of an adequate supply of tap water, there are no flush toilets in the eMhlwazini ward. If the ward was in line with national rural trends it may be that as many as 24 percent of the households have no toilets at all.

6.2.3.3 Land Use and Resource Utilisation

Most of the local community are involved in the cultivation of crops (Refer to Plate 4). Approximately 93 percent of the local community grew crops for subsistence only, and the remaining 7 percent sold a portion of their crops to other people in the community for supplementary income. The most common crop grown was maize, followed by beans, vegetables and fruits.



Plate 3: The water from the eMhlwazini river is mainly used for washing and recreation.



Plate 4: Aerial view of part of the eMhlwazini ward, showing intensive land cultivation for subsistence farming.

An issue of great concern to local residents is the lack of grazing, especially in the winter months. Of the 83 percent of people in the ward who owned livestock, 64 percent indicated that there was a lack of grazing in the winter to such an extent that up to 24 percent of the residents had experienced loss of cattle through starvation. People have to supplement wintergrazing through mealies from their crops. The presence of the Park with its open tracks of "unused" land, angers local residents who believe that they should have access to grazing rights in the Park (Refer to Plate 5). This view is reflected and is one of the driving forces motivating the eMhlwazini community's land claim on the Park. 67 percent of the residents believe that the Park should be open to them for grazing because of the growing population pressure which results in a shortage of land available outside the Park.

The Park is a source of wood, grass and herbs to the people of the eMhlwazini ward. Wood was sold by the NPB at 11 cents a headload, or R50 for a tractor load. Although most people had to walk approximately 6 km to fetch wood, 87 percent of the community made use of this resource (Refer to Plate 6). For those living further away from the Park, the only option was to acquire wood from private sources at a cost ranging from R70 for a bakkie load, to R180-200 a truck load or R10 a tree.

Grass was a resource collected by almost every household in the community, with 70 percent collecting exclusively from the Park. While a bundle of grass was sold to the local community at 50 cents a load, at least 20 percent of those collecting grass from the Park participated in the arrangement where one bundle of grass was for free for every bundle collected for NPB's use. Grass was collected to be either sold, or to be used for thatching, commercial crafts or domestic items like brooms and mats.

None of the residents collected herbs from the Park. NPB allows one representative inyanga or sangoma to collect herbs in the Park, but the local traditional healers decided not to take up this option as it was felt that it might create friction and rivalry amongst them. However, the desire to collect herbs in the Park for the preferential use of local healers, was expressed by all. Furthermore, these healers suggested that herbal traders should not be allowed in the Park, and that the quantity of herbs collected should be limited.

6.2.3.4 Tourism and Recreation

The eMhlwazini community viewed tourism as an opportunity to channel socio-economic benefits to the area. Most residents (77 percent) were in favour of tourism development in area, and viewed tourism as an opportunity to create employment and promote local handicrafts. Other benefits that were associated with tourism development was an increase in the flow of money into the area; the introduction of light industries; an opportunity for the community to communicate with tourists, and to promote their culture and traditions.



Plate 5: Aerial photo showing the Park boundary and the sought after grazing on the other side of the fence.



Plate 6: Women of the eMhlwazini ward collecting wood in the Park.

Only 17 percent of the community used the Park for recreation, which included hiking and visiting employees within the Park. Reasons given for these low figures included perceptions that the local community was not allowed into the park except to collect wood or grass, and that they needed permission to do so. On the whole, there were a lot of misunderstanding regarding regulations which controlled community access to the Park, as well as of the recreational use of the Park. The lack of adequate facilities for the use of the local people, and the fact that they had no free time for recreation due to their household duties, were also given as reasons for not utilising the Park.

6.2.3.5 Local Perceptions of the Natal Parks Board

The local community (53 percent) perceived the NPB as being "unfriendly" towards them, and 30 percent viewed both the NPB and the Park as providing little benefit to them. The residents of the eMhlwazini ward had definite expectations of NPB's responsibility towards its neighbours, and it is here that much of the disillusionment with the NPB emerged. The community suggested that the NPB (or the Park for that matter) could assist them in building schools; lend them money; take care of the rural poor as oppose to taking care of white visitors; interact with schools to promote environmental education; provide employment to the area; and allow the local community greater access to resources and land for grazing.

Residents of the eMhlwazini ward had different opinions regarding NPB and the work they were doing in the protected area. 20 percent of the residents realised that the NPB was conserving nature by protecting the land within the Park, while 25 percent argued that the role of the NPB was to burn the area. Furthermore, 30 percent of the people firmly believed that purpose of the NPB's presence in the Park was to prevent them and their cattle from entering the Park.

6.2.3.6 The Land Claim

On 28 January 1995, a group of approximately 500 people marched on the Cathedral Peak gate of the Natal Drakensberg Park to demand the return of traditional land to the amaNgwane tribe. This group of people, which marched under the banner of the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP), handed a memorandum to the NPB stating a claim on land which comprises the entire Cathedral Peak State Forest, up to the Lesotho border. The NPB referred the landclaim to the Land Claims Court. However, as the claim predates the 1913 cut-off date, the claim is not expected to be successful.

The majority of the eMhlwazini residents (64 percent) believed that all land inside the Natal Drakensberg Park belonged to the amaNgwane tribe. Only 10 percent of people believing in the landclaim indicated that ancestral land and burial sites were part of the Park. Furthermore, 12 percent of the residents suggested negotiation to settle the land claim, while 33 percent of

the people indicated that the NPB should manage the area, even if the land was returned to the amaNgwane tribe.

6.2.4 The Land Swap

Prior to the landclaim, a land swap has been negotiated between the NPB and the amaNgwane Tribal Authority. The proposal was for the exchange of high altitude tribal land (Area 1 on Map 3) of substantial conservation value, for a portion of land at the entrance of Cathedral Peak State Forest, within the Mfifiyela Nature Reserve (Area 2 on Map 3). The proposed swap was complicated by the transferal of tribal land to the Ingwavuma Trust prior to the 1994 national election. Therefore, current procedures to deproclaim this land are delaying official transfer to the amaNgwane Tribe. However, in the interim period a lease has been signed between the NPB and the amaNgwane Tribal Authority, and the land is currently used by the eMhlwazini ward to graze their cattle (Smythe, 1995 *pers. comm.*).

6.2.5 Archaeology

Cathedral Peak State Forest is one of the richest and best known rock art areas in South Africa (Mazel, 1981; in Baseline Report Volume 1). There are a total of 170 known sites in the Cathedral Peak State Forest, of which 125 have been recorded. These comprised of 101 rock art sites, 18 non-art sites, and 6 sites termed as "finger-style" sites, which are not rock art sites, but natural rock coloration (Mazel, 1981; in Baseline Report Volume 1).

6.3 The Need for Ecotourism Development at Cathedral Peak

This section deals with NPB's motivation for ecotourism development in the Drakensberg; in the Northern Drakensberg; and the choice of Cathedral Peak as a development node.

6.3.1 The Need for an Ecotourism Development in the Drakensberg

The Natal Drakensberg Park is a popular ecotourism destination especially to those living in Gauteng and KwaZulu/Natal. Existing ecotourism facilities are operating at near capacity, such as the Tendele and Gaint's Castle¹ hutted camps in the Northern Drakensberg. The NPB believes that there is both a demand for ecotourism facilities in the Natal Drakensberg, and an opportunity to supply these facilities in the Natal Drakensberg Park. In addition, the NPB has the responsibility as a statutory conservation body, to make protected areas under its jurisdiction available to as wide variety of the country's inhabitants as possible.

6.3.2 The Need for an Ecotourism Development in the Northern Drakensberg

The Northern Drakensberg is a focal ecotourism destination for visitors in terms of its proximity to the Gauteng and Durban Metropolitan areas. The popularity of the facilities at

¹Bed occupancies of over 90% have been recorded for the Tendele and Gaint's Castle hutted camps.

Royal Natal National Park, including the recently upgraded Tendele hutted camp, supports this motivation. Therefore, the Northern Drakensberg has been identified by the NPB as a priority sub-region for ecotourism in the near future. The NPB's Integrated Conservation and Development Programme rank the Northern Drakensberg as their third highest priority development area. Furthermore, development in this area could offer substantial opportunities for building the economy in the region, as well as developing its human resources.

6.3.3 The Choice of Cathedral Peak as an Ecotourism Development Node

The NPB has identified the Cathedral Peak node as a major development node in the document "Outdoor Recreation and Tourism Facilities Development Plan: Natal Drakensberg Park" (Baseline Report Volume 1). A wide range of nodes have been recommended for the Drakensberg Park, to make provision for a wide range of user preferences. The Cathedral Peak node confirms to most of the criteria² used to assess the suitability of the different nodes. Furthermore, in terms of the "Outdoor Recreation and Tourism Facilities Development Plan: Natal Drakensberg Park" document, it is recommended that a major node should consist of some or all, but not more than the following:

- ◆ a hotel / or restaurant
- ◆ hutted accommodation up to 200 beds
- ◆ a caravan park, of up to 50 sites
- ◆ a tented camping area, of up to 50 sites
- ◆ educational and/or interpretive services
- ◆ a visitor center, containing a supply or curio shop
- ◆ a service zone, to provide the necessary support services and staff accommodation

Motivating factors for siting development at the Cathedral Peak node, include the following:

- ◆ There is no NPB hutted accommodation at Cathedral Peak, only an existing campsite. In contrast, substantial NPB development exists at Royal Natal National Park in the north, and Injasuti to the south of Cathedral Peak.

²Refer to Baseline Report: Volume 1 Section 2.2.3.

- ◆ The location of the Cathedral Peak node is equidistant from the two major user markets - Gauteng and Durban.
- ◆ There is a good, tarred access road to Cathedral Peak.
- ◆ Sufficient water, power and communications infrastructure exists.
- ◆ There is excellent access to walks and trails.
- ◆ There is an opportunity to increase employment opportunities in the neighbouring rural communities.

6.4 Setting Different Scenario's for Ecotourism Development at Cathedral Peak

This purpose of this section is to set out two different scenario's for ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak. Scenario A is based on the beneficiary approach to ecotourism development, while Scenario B uses the Checklist generated in Chapter 5 to illustrate the participatory approach to ecotourism development. This discussion aims not only to highlight the difference in the endproducts of each scenario, but also the difference in the process followed in each.

Scenario A is based on NPB's proposal for the development of a 200 bed hutted camp at Cathedral Peak. The discussion of this scenario will be based on NPB's planning process to date, and there-after by sketching a possible future scenario based on the main findings and recommendations of the Baseline Report. Scenario B is developed out of an evaluative discussion of Scenario A, and is a hypothetical situation illustrating the ideal scenario for ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak. Scenario B will be guided by the Checklist generated in Chapter 5, but due to the fact that the discussion is based on a hypothetical situation and the fact that the current proposal by the NPB is still in the early stages of the project cycle, the discussion of Scenario B would not go into the same depth or detail as required by the Checklist. Furthermore, Scenario B will be based on the subjective interpretation of the information contained in the Baseline Report, fueled by imagination.

Scenario A and Scenario B will be discussed according to the four development phases identified in Chapter 5. A brief summary of the main findings will follow the discussion of each phase.

6.4.1 The Planning Phase

Scenario A will describe NPB's planning process to date. Scenario B will draw on the Checklist in order to sketch an alternative scenario for ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak.

6.4.1.1 Planning Phase - Scenario A

The Natal Parks Board identified Cathedral Peak as a development node for a hutted camp. The development they envisaged is a 200 bed luxury hutted camp that is targeted at both the international and national markets. This development would be along the lines of the Hilltop camp in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park, where the 1995 accommodation rate for a non self-catering unit is approximately R96 per person per night. According to the NPB, this type and size of development is necessary in order to attract international tourists. Furthermore, a 200 bed camp is seen as the optimal size in terms of financial viability and management efficiency. However, there is no documentation to support this position, but it was based on the fact that the 200 bed Hilltop camp in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park became self supporting after just being in operation for one year.

Catering and non-catering accommodation units, as well as a restaurant and curio-shop would be included in this development. The accommodation units would be thatch roofed and their architectural character would blend in with the colours and hues of the natural surroundings. Visitor facilities at the proposed development would be resource-based, and would include hiking, nature trails and trout fishing. Furthermore, this proposal at Cathedral Peak would occur within the context of the proposed upgrading of the existing campsite, day-visitor facilities, entrance gate and craft market.

The NPB's planning process up to the Masters Group's involvement in the Preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment, was entirely done without any form of community participation. Eight sites at Cathedral Peak were identified by the NPB Planning Division as possible sites for development. The exact location of these sites was not documented, but the reasons for eliminating five of the sites were briefly discussed in the document "Preliminary investigation for the proposed siting of a hutted camp at Cathedral Peak node" (Baseline Document). There-after, three sites in close proximity of the existing Park headquarters were shortlisted for development, due to aesthetic and logistic considerations. These were the Mike's Pass site, Park headquarters site, and the Tryme Shelf site. A geomorphological study was commissioned on these three sites, and an in-house investigation on the suitability of the three sites for a hutted camp development was conducted. The preliminary investigation concluded that the Mike's Pass and Park headquarters sites were highly suited for the development of a 200 bed hutted camp. The Tryme shelf site was of lower suitability for a development of this size.

Following the preliminary investigations and a site visit by NPB's Planning Division, a composite site was selected as the preferred site for the development. This site comprised a portion of the Tryme Shelf site, and the Park headquarters site. A concept layout, detailing the division of the composite site into Camps A, B, and C was drawn up. Two specialist studies on the access road to the Tryme shelf, and a geotechnical survey was commissioned. A

statement of intent was issued followed by a press release in English and Afrikaans newspapers. At this stage the Masters group was commissioned to conduct a preliminary environmental impact assessment.

The Terms of Reference of the preliminary environmental impact assessment (PEIA) included a socio-economic survey to identify potential positive and negative impacts of the proposed development on neighbouring communities, as well as to identify opportunities for community involvement, both in the construction and implementation phases. The PEIA identified and assessed the proposed development according to the following three alternatives:

- ◆ **Alternative 1** - development of a 200 bed hutted camp on the site comprising both the Park headquarters and the Tryme Shelf sites (*i.e.* Camps A, B, and C)
- ◆ **Alternative 2** - development of a 200 bed hutted camp at the Park headquarters site (*i.e.* Camp C only)
- ◆ **Alternative 3** - no development of a hutted camp at Cathedral Peak on either of the above mentioned sites

The PEIA concluded Alternative 2 would be the most desirable option. It would provide employment opportunities, both temporary (construction phase) and on the long term, which would significantly improve the quality of life for the impoverished residents of eMhlwazini ward. Associated with the tangible benefits provided by the development, would be an increased sense of social security and stability for adjacent communities. It would also lay the groundwork for future meaningful participation of communities in planning and decisionmaking concerning the management of the Cathedral Peak protected area.

6.4.1.2 Planning Phase - Scenario B

The Natal Parks Board identified Cathedral Peak a development node for a hutted camp. They commissioned a socio-economic survey in order to collect information on the needs and priorities of neighbouring communities. There-after, the Cathedral Peak Ecotourism Committee was initiated. This committee included representatives from the eMhlwazini ward, the Cathedral Peak conservation manager, members from the NPB's Planning Division, and representatives from other local interested and affected parties.

The NPB proposed to develop a 200 bed hutted camp in the Drakensberg Park. This camp would target both international and national tourists, and would be in line with the Hilltop luxury camp at Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park. The eMhlwazini community stated their interest of being involved in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak, and proposed a type of development that will cater for visitors which require a level of accommodation higher than

that of the existing campsite, but are not able to afford the rates of NPB's proposed luxury camp. The Committee proposed that the NPB should reduce the size of their proposed luxury camp to approximately 140 beds, and form a partnership with the eMhlwazini community to establish a 60 bed hutted camp which will provide more affordable accommodation and thus meet the needs of younger tourists and hikers. Furthermore, this type of development would enhance the NPB's mission statement by providing accommodation to a wider spectrum of the South African public.

The NPB agreed to provide the funding for the 60 bed hutted camp and will have a 40 percent share in the development. The eMhlwazini community would provide the land for the development, and contribute the labour in order to ensure a 40 percent share in the development. A local NGO would facilitate and assist the development, and would be a 20 percent partner in the proposed camp. The 60 bed hutted camp would be developed on the 377 ha of land the local community recently acquired in the landswop. The community agreed to prohibit the establishment of any settlements in this area, but with the help of a specialist certain areas of this communal land would be zoned for grazing. Furthermore, the NPB agreed to assist the community in establishing woodlots within the local rural settlement in order to meet the resource needs of the local people.

The proposed 60 bed hutted camp would reflect the local indigenous architecture and form, that being thatched roofed huts with colourful painted mud-plastered walls. The accommodation units would be grouped in "households", with each cluster having a communal kitchen and fire place. Adjacent to these accommodation units, the eMhlwazini community plans to establish a community center to promote local culture and traditions. This centre will consist of a herbal chemist, a shebeen³, craftmaking and selling facility, and a community hall for social and educational purposes. The community centre would also incorporate a vegetable garden which will supply tourists and the shebeen, and an indigenous nursery. The aim of the indigenous nursery is to sell plants to tourists, as well as to meet the needs of the local schools and traditional healers. In addition, tourists could hire guides and as well as people to carry their backpacks on long hikes. Furthermore, The NPB agreed to provide assistance to the local community to market their hutted camp, and to incorporate the bookings procedure for the camp within their current system.

The NPB's 140 bed hutted camp would be developed on the Park headquarters site adjacent to their existing offices. The accommodation units would be thatched roofed, and would reflect local culture by using local architectural form and materials. In addition to the 140

³A shebeen is usually a structure or enclosure which sells food and drink, and is a popular place for local people to meet and socialise.

accommodation units, the camp would provide a restaurant and curio-shop selling local crafts. Some of the local crafts would also be used as interior furnishings in the accommodation units. Furthermore, the proposed development would provide preferential employment to the local community.

6.4.1.3 Planning Phase - Conclusion

Information Gathering - in Scenario A, information on the needs and priorities of the eMhlwazini community was only gathered at the time when the Masters Group was commissioned to conduct a preliminary environmental impact assessment. This late involvement of the local community prohibited their input and contribution towards the planning of the ecotourism development. Thus, the planning phase had been in operation for several years before the NPB decided to involve the local people.

In contrast to Scenario A, Scenario B set out to determine the needs of the local community in the early stages of the planning phase thus maximizing opportunities for local participation. In Scenario B the NPB thus had a clear understanding of opportunities for local community input, and the eMhlwazini ward had sufficient time to become involved in the proposed ecotourism development through a process of local community participation. Furthermore, this early involvement resulted in site-specific information, leading to an ecotourism development that would be responsive to the local context.

Planning and Management of Resources - Scenario A fails to provide an opportunity for the local community to participate in planning and management of resources. Access to natural resources is viewed as a “handout”, and therefore resource utilisation is not linked to the conservation of the protected area. Furthermore, resource use patterns in Scenario A do not incorporate local needs, nor do they provide alternatives for destructive resource use activities. Thus, natural resources are not viewed by the local community as an asset, and therefore there are no perceived incentives to ensure the sustainable utilisation and conservation of these resources.

Scenario B encourages local participation in planning and management of natural resources. The NPB is aware of the eMhlwazini ward’s needs for resource use, and provides the community with specialist assistance in land use planning in order to minimise resource destruction. Furthermore, alternatives to prevent resource depletion such as woodlots and vegetable gardens are provided, which would also increase the local community resource base.

Planning and Design of Ecotourism Facilities - the planning and design of the ecotourism development in Scenario A was carried out in the NPB's head office in Pietermaritzburg. It was thus a top-down process without any local participation in the planning and design of the ecotourism facility. The type of development proposed for the Cathedral Peak area was also determined by the NPB without consulting adjacent communities, allowing only for preferential employment opportunities to the local community. Although the hutted camp would have a minimal negative impact on the natural environment, and the development would incorporate some of the unique natural features of the development site, it would not reflect, nor incorporate, the local architecture and form. Furthermore, the development was not planned and designed in such a way as to incorporate local construction methods and materials.

The planning and design of ecotourism development Scenario B ensures effective local participation through the establishment of the Cathedral Peak Ecotourism Committee, which consists of representatives of interested and affected parties. The Committee enables the local community to participate in determining which ecotourism scenario's would be feasible for Cathedral Peak. The result reflects on both the local community's and the NPB's needs for such a development. Local architecture and form, as well as local construction methods and materials are incorporated into the design of the two facilities. In addition to the employment opportunities at NPB's luxury hutted camp, the eMhlwazini ward would also receive substantial tangible benefits from their own development.

Building Institutions - Scenario B initiated an ecotourism committee in order to facilitate participatory decisionmaking in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak. The members of the Cathedral Peak Ecotourism Committee consist of representatives of interested and affected parties. The Committee should thus be accountable to a wide spectrum of the interested and affected public. Scenario A, which is based on the beneficiary approach to community involvement, fails to encourage local community participation in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak. Thus, Scenario A fails to provide an opportunity for institution building, and decisionmaking is therefore not a participatory process.

This concludes the discussion of the Planning Phase. The next section deals with the construction of the ecotourism facilities proposed in Scenario A and B.

6.4.2 The Construction Phase

Scenario A describes the possible construction process of NPB's proposed hutted camp. However, the labour requirements for the construction of NPB's proposed type of luxury hutted camp are not known, therefore the discussion focuses on the various recommendations made in the Baseline Report. Scenario B draws on the Checklist in order to sketch an alternative scenario for the construction of the ecotourism developments at Cathedral Peak.

6.4.2.1 Construction Phase - Scenario A

In this scenario, the Natal Parks Board constructs a luxury 200 bed hutted camp on the Park headquarters site. The construction is not done by a local construction company; however, a clause in the tender document provides for the preferential employment of local workforce. The construction process focuses on limiting the use of heavy machinery in the sensitive Drakensberg environment by promoting labour intensive construction practices.

Women from the eMhlwazini ward are used to clear the vegetation of the areas sited for the construction of the accommodation units, thus enabling them to supplement their income on a temporary basis. Some of these local women also contribute to the construction of the camp by collecting grass for the thatching of the units. The NPB had decided, on account of the level of local skills, to subcontract a local entrepreneur to do the thatching for the accommodation units. Furthermore, local people were employed in assisting with the construction of the units, as well as the construction of the access road to the camp.

However, the NPB had neglected to involve the local community in the planning process of the construction of the hutted camp, and especially in the allocation of suitable housing sites for outside labourers. These labourers caused much dissatisfaction and social disruption in the eMhlwazini ward, resulting in an increase in violence in a politically homogenous area.

6.4.2.2 Construction Phase - Scenario B

The Natal Parks Board constructs their 140 bed luxury hutted camp on the Park headquarters site. The camp is designed to incorporate local construction methods and materials, thus maximizing local participation in the construction process. Furthermore, the construction process is planned and structured to provide the local people involved in the development with the opportunity to acquire construction skills.

The construction team consists of 120 unskilled local labourers which were supervised by 10 skilled construction workers and builders. Construction of the accommodation units on site is simplified by prefabricating the structural components of these accommodation units off-site, thus enabling the use of predominantly unskilled labour. The NPB funds a loan to a local entrepreneur to establish a brickmaking factory in the eMhlwazini ward, thus reducing the cost

of transporting materials to the construction site. Local women help with clearing vegetation from the site to minimise the negative impacts associated with the use of heavy machinery. The collection of thatching grass, as well as the thatching of the accommodation units, is done by the women of the eMhlwazini ward.

The construction of the 60 bed hutted camp on the communal land is carried out by a local construction company. The NPB assists this company in meeting the necessary standards required for the construction of ecotourism facilities, thus upgrading their skills to compete in future developments. The construction materials used in this development are all obtained from the area, and the design is based on local architecture and form.

Furthermore, the local community establishes an on-site nursery to meet the landscaping demands of both developments. The type and quantity of indigenous plants to be used in these developments is identified prior to the construction phase, so as to allow time for the local community to collect the necessary seedlings in the Park.

6.4.2.3 Construction Phase - Conclusion

The construction process used in the development of ecotourism facilities in Scenario A encourages labour intensive practices and thus provides the local community with socio-economic benefits through employment. Labour intensive practices also reduce the use of heavy construction machinery on site so as to minimise ecological damage to the sensitive Drakensberg environment. However, the ecotourism facility was not planned to incorporate local construction methods and materials; therefore it limits opportunities for entrepreneurial involvement in the construction process. In addition, the use of external labourers increases social costs of the construction process to the local community.

As in Scenario A, Scenario B encourages labour intensive construction practices. However, through innovative planning, the construction process in Scenario B makes provision for a large proportion of unskilled labour. Furthermore, the ecotourism developments in Scenario B are planned and designed to incorporate local architecture and form, thus providing an opportunity for local entrepreneurs to participate in the construction process. The use of local materials would also reduce resource consumption and would possibly be more recyclable.

This concludes the discussion of the Construction Phase. The next section deals with the implementation of ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak.

6.4.3 The Implementation Phase

Scenario A describes the implementation phase of NPB's 200 bed hutted camp. The various recommendations made in the Baseline report will be incorporated in this discussion. Scenario

B deals with the implementation of the proposed development scenario, and will draw on the Checklist to guide the discussion.

6.4.3.1 Implementation Phase - Scenario A

The Natal Parks Board's 200 bed luxury hutted camp provides substantial socio-economic benefits to the local community through the provision of preferential employment opportunities. The camp not only provides direct employment opportunities to members of the local community in the day-to-day activities of the camp, but also supplements their income through the provision of indirect income opportunities. These include the establishment of a curio-stall and herbal chemist at the entrance gate complex, as well as by supplying the restaurant in the camp with fresh vegetables from the community vegetable garden. In addition, the NPB requests the local sewing club to supply the linen for use in the accommodation units.

This development also increases the interaction, and thus improves the relationship, between the NPB and residents of the eMhlwazini ward. The NPB agree to promote tours to the local community, providing tourists with the opportunity to learn more of local culture and traditions. These include evenings out to local shebeens, and tasting the local cuisine through specially home-cooked meals at certain households. Furthermore, the NPB staff are more involved with local schools, especially by promoting both formal and informal environmental education.

6.4.3.2 Implementation Phase - Scenario B

The Natal Parks Board's 140 bed luxury camp provides the local community with socio-economic benefits through preferential employment opportunities. These include both direct employment of community members in the day-by-day operations of the camp, and indirect employment through curio sales. Furthermore, the community vegetable garden supplies the restaurant and some of the self-catering guests with fresh vegetables on a daily basis.

The 60 bed hutted camp on the communal land might not provide the same formal employment opportunities as the abovementioned 140 bed luxury camp, but it is a great source of community pride and inspiration. The craftmaking area, which is a combined area for craftmaking and craft sales, is growing steadily due to increased tourist interest and spending. Various small take-away food stalls are running in peak tourist season, and over weekends. The shebeen offers visitors a place to socialise in the evenings, and incorporates a small restaurant for those non-selfcatering tourists. The vegetable garden supplies the restaurant and visitors with fresh vegetables, and any surplus stock is sold to the community. A trained NPB horticulturist assists the community with the running of the nursery, which supplies tourists, the herbal chemist, and the local residents with plants. Furthermore, NPB staff are involved in

providing environmental education lectures to school children, and presentations and slide shows to tourists in the community hall.

The eMhlwazini community decide to receive their share of income from the 60 bed hutted camp in cash. However, the community decide that a certain portion of these cash benefits must be invested in establishing a chicken farm. The Cathedral Peak Ecotourism Committee requests that all households involved in the ecotourism development, in other words those who are the real beneficiaries, be registered. The cash is then distributed to the heads of these households, thus providing the community with a direct link between socio-economic benefits, and the conservation of the area for the purpose of attracting tourists. Each household thereafter deposits a sum of their cash into a community trust for the establishment of a small chicken farm. A committee is elected by the community to manage the chicken farm, and to report back to them on a regular basis.

6.4.3.3 Implementation Phase - Conclusion

Building the Local Economy - the beneficiary approach to community involvement in Scenario A provides the residents of eMhlwazini ward with substantial socio-economic benefits. However, these benefits are derived from community involvement in the ecotourism development, and not from community participation in the identification, design and implementation of ecotourism activities. Although Scenario A provides opportunities for formal and informal employment, and therefore increases local income, it fails to empower the local community through a process of participation. Thus, Scenario A fails to create local stakeholders in ecotourism development which is a prerequisite to sustainable rural development.

In contrast with Scenario A, Scenario B not only provides opportunities for employment, but also encourages entrepreneurial development. Scenario B enables the local community to form partnerships with the NPB, thus strengthening the link between conservation and development. Community benefits derived from local participation in ecotourism activities would not only boost the local economy, but also ensure a process of socio-economic change through community development. Thus, Scenario B would not only meet the short term needs of the local people, but would also meet long term prospects through socio-economic growth.

Distributing the Benefits of Ecotourism - as mentioned above, Scenario A provides the residents of eMhlwazini ward with formal and informal employment opportunities. Although the NPB provides preferential employment to the local community, benefits from these employment opportunities are not always linked to the conservation of the

protected area. More-over, those members of the local community not employed by the NPB or not involved in any form of self-employment, would not receive any social or economic benefits from the conservation of the protected area.

In Scenario B, the benefits received from the community tourism venture provide the local community with an incentive to conserve the protected area. Furthermore, the residents of the eMhlwazini ward are given a choice as to how to spend these benefits. The distribution of benefits from ecotourism development in Scenario B enables the whole community to share in the benefits of conservation, therefore changing local perceptions and attitudes towards the Park.

This concludes the section dealing with the implementation of ecotourism projects at Cathedral Peak. The next section will evaluate these two scenario's in terms of efficiency, equity, and sustainability.

6.4.4 Evaluation

This section will provide a brief evaluation of Scenarios A and B in terms of the following criteria:

- ◆ efficiency
- ◆ equity
- ◆ sustainability

6.4.4.1 Efficiency

Do the total benefits of the development outweigh the total costs?

Scenario A provides the community with socio-economic benefits through employment opportunities, but does not allow for effective community participation so as to enable the local people to meet their needs. This scenario is based on the beneficiary approach, thus not providing the local people with an opportunity to have input in developments that may influence their lives. Scenario B, however, provides the local community with the opportunity to empower themselves through participation in all aspects of ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak. For instance, the social and economic benefits from the community's 60 bed hutted camp in Scenario B, outweigh the costs borne by the local people.

6.4.4.2 Equity

Are the benefits and the costs of this development fairly distributed?

In Scenario A the local community bear the social costs (mostly as result of external labour in the construction phase) of the development, while the NPB has to carry the financial burden. Furthermore, the local community contribute little towards the planning, implementation, and management of ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak, due to NPB's centralised top-down decisionmaking process. They are not even consulted on issues such as access to resources and recreation needs. Thus, the scenario fails to integrate conservation and development by creating stakeholders in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak.

Scenario B however, identifies community needs and local priorities through a process of effective community participation. The NPB and the eMhlwazini community share the social and economic costs of the development, with the community contributing their share through labour and land. This scenario creates community stakeholders in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak, thus effectively linking the necessity to conserve the protected area in order to sustain socio-economic benefits. The community becomes an equal partner in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak, which in turn will change their perceptions of the NPB and the role of protected areas.

6.4.4.3 Sustainability

Will the benefits of this development continue to outweigh the costs, from the point of view of future generations?

Scenario A fails to provide the opportunity for effective local participation, thus it will not manage to change perceptions of the NPB and of conservation. Furthermore, there is no link between the economic benefits the local people receive, and the conservation of the protected area. In addition, the development was not shaped to adapt to the local social, economic, cultural and technological conditions. Thus, the ecotourism development in scenario A would not enhance the sustainability of the protected area, and the local people will proceed with practices which degrade the environment, due to a lack of opportunity to state their needs and priorities.

Scenario B would enhance the environmental sustainability of the ecotourism development and that of the protected area. This is because the local people participate in the planning and management process, receive tangible benefits from conservation, thus resulting in a changed perception of conservation. This will create stakeholders within the local community, who view the protected area as a natural asset which attracts ecotourists, and thus promotes socio-economic upliftment.

6.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

6.5.1 Conclusions

The different ecotourism development scenarios for Cathedral Peak were evaluated in terms of equity, efficiency and sustainability. Scenario B was more efficient as a result of the fair distribution of benefits, as well as by minimizing social costs to the local community. Furthermore, Scenario B was more equitable, as result of effective local participation, than the limited community involvement approach taken in Scenario A. Scenario B enabled the local community not only to have a share in the benefits of ecotourism development, but also allowed for the equitable distribution in costs by local contributions in land and labour. Finally, Scenario B would also be the more sustainable option of ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak, mainly due to the fact that this scenario enables the local community to participate and benefit from ecotourism development, thus changing their attitudes to a more positive outlook on the value of conservation and protected areas.

The discussion of different ecotourism development scenarios for the Cathedral Peak area has illustrated the difference between a beneficiary and a participatory approach to community involvement. The participatory approach taken in Scenario B encouraged communities to be social actors rather than passive subjects in a process of change. This approach seeks to achieve similar goals to that of the beneficiary approach, but also seeks to use the ecotourism development project as a catalyst to stimulate self reliance leading to a process of change that can be sustained beyond the lifespan of the project.

6.5.2 Recommendations

Based on the discussion in this chapter, the following recommendations can be made to the Natal Parks Board, in order to ensure local community participation in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak:

- ◆ Use the *Checklist for Maximizing Community Participation in Ecotourism Development in order to ensure the Integration of Protected Area Conservation and Sustainable Rural Development*
- ◆ Establish an Ecotourism Development Committee at Cathedral Peak which would represent both the local community and the NPB, in order to promote community based ecotourism ventures and associated ecotourism activities
- ◆ Encourage the use of alternative resource use practices, to prevent resource depletion (especially the loss of topsoil through erosion), and encourage agroforestry in order to broaden the community's resource base

- ◆ Encourage and assist local entrepreneurs in establishing their own businesses. These entrepreneurs should also be encouraged to form partnerships with the NPB or local NGO's so as to enable them to participate in ecotourism developments and associated activities
- ◆ Plan the construction methods used to develop the ecotourism facilities at Cathedral Peak to provide local unskilled labourers with an opportunity for employment. As far as possible, use local craftsmen and craftswomen in the construction of the ecotourism development
- ◆ Ensure that tangible benefits to the residents of the eMhlwazini ward derived from ecotourism are linked to the conservation of the protected area. The local community should also be given the opportunity to decide on how to spend these benefits
- ◆ Encourage local participation in planning and management of the Park. The NPB needs to change local attitudes on conservation, which would only be achieved through a process of participatory decisionmaking on planning and management issues of the protected area
- ◆ Ensure that ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak is compatible with the regional planning frameworks. This would enable regional authorities to develop a holistic strategy for social upliftment through sustainable rural development in the area

The landswop area currently in the process to be transferred to the amaNgwane Tribe provides the local community with an opportunity to alleviate current land pressure in the ward, as well as an opportunity to develop a community based tourism venture. This opportunity should be explored by the eMhlwazini ward with the assistance of the NPB and a local NGO.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and Recommendations

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CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This dissertation set out to examine the need for integrating protected area conservation and rural development. Furthermore, it identified the key principles and components of integrated conservation and development projects, and examined ways to achieve the successful integration of conservation and development by means of local community participation in ecotourism developments. Thereafter, a checklist was generated to maximise local community participation in ecotourism developments, by using the main principles and components identified in the previous chapters. Finally, the Cathedral Peak Case Study was discussed, and two possible scenarios were sketched for ecotourism development in this area. The first scenario was based on the NPB proposal to develop a 200 bed hatted camp, and the second scenario was based on subjective interpretation of baseline information structured along the lines of the Checklist, which was generated in the previous chapter.

Integrated Conservation and Development Projects have often failed to be successful, most often due to a lack of local participation and providing sustained benefits to the local population. However, ecotourism developments can provide substantial socio-economic benefits to these people while promoting the conservation of the protected area. Ecotourism could thus be a means to integrate sustainable rural development and protected area conservation. This chapter concludes the main findings of the dissertation, and aims to provide recommendations in order to ensure effective local community participation ecotourism developments in protected areas.

7.2 Conclusions

The following principles and components are essential to ensure effective local participation in ecotourism developments in order to ensure the successful integration of protected area conservation and rural development. For each conclusion in this list, the general principle or component is stated initially, followed by the corresponding conclusions of the evaluation of the two case study scenarios, which were evaluated in Chapter 6.

- ◆ ***Response to local ecological, socio-economic, and cultural context through a process of information gathering.*** The gathering of reliable information not only ensures site specific solutions to local conditions, but also provides an opportunity to initiate local participation. Through effective participation in ecotourism developments, local needs and priorities are identified, thus reducing negative socio-cultural impacts and enhancing benefits to the community. *Information gathering in Scenario A of the Cathedral Peak Case Study was done in the late planning stages, thus reducing local input on the ecotourism product. Therefore, the ecotourism development scenario in A does not reflect local needs and priorities, neither does it incorporate any of the*

local cultural and architectural form. Scenario B on the other hand, ensured local participation in the early stages of information gathering in the planning phase, therefore the endproduct reflected local needs and priorities. Furthermore, local perceptions on conservation were positively influenced by a process of communication and a continued process of exchanging information.

- ◆ **Conserve biological diversity.** Development in and adjacent to protected areas should not occur at the cost of the conservation of biodiversity. The value of protected areas to individuals, and to society as a whole, lies in the ecological processes and species they conserve. *Both Scenario A and B aim to minimise the negative impacts on species and ecosystems, however, Scenario B would be ecologically more sustainable in the long term due to change in local attitudes to conservation brought about through local participation in the ecotourism developments at Cathedral Peak.*

- ◆ **Empower local communities through a process of institution building.** Local community participation is likely to be more sustained through the building of institutions. Demand driven institution building empower local communities through a process of participatory decisionmaking, which creates institutions which are accountable and reflects local needs. *Institution building and thus community empowerment was absent in Scenario A of the Cathedral Peak Case Study. The community was only consulted in the latter stages of the planning phase, and from then on no formal community structures was initiated to ensure local participation in ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak. However, Scenario B initiated a Ecotourism Committee in the early stages of the planning phase, which enabled the local people to participate through their elected representatives in the ecotourism developments at Cathedral Peak. Later on, a committee was erected to plan and manage the community project which resulted from the funds generated out of their ecotourism project.*

- ◆ **Encourage local participation in the planning and management of resources.** Local community participation in the planning and management of resources would ensure equitable access to, and sustainable utilisation of natural resources. Communities would also be more likely to view these resources as a capital asset, thereby enhancing the conservation objectives of the protected area. *Scenario A of the Cathedral Peak Case Study is based on the participatory approach to resource management, enabling the local people to broaden their resource base by encouraging effective resource planning and management practices. However, Scenario B which is based on the*

beneficiary approach only provides for limited access to natural resources, and does not provide and encourage the use of alternative resource use practices to minimise environmental degradation.

- ◆ **Create community stakeholders in conservation by encouraging the forming of partnerships.** Local communities must receive benefits from conservation in order for them to change their attitudes towards protected areas. Therefore, the forming of partnerships between the various role players in ecotourism development and the conservation of the protected area must be encouraged. *In Scenario A of the Cathedral Peak Case Study, the NPB failed to involve the local community successfully in ecotourism development or any associated activities. In Scenario B, a joint ecotourism development was initiated in which both the NPB and eMhlwazini community were the major shareholders. Thereby, the local community was made a stakeholder in the development and it is thus in their interest to ensure that the protected area are conserved.*

- ◆ **Link socio-economic benefits to conservation.** Any socio-economic benefits to communities living adjacent to protected areas, and which was generated by the existence of the neighbouring protected area, must be linked to the conservation of that protected area. *Scenario B of the Cathedral Peak Case Study establish the link between conservation and development by providing the community with cash dividends of their ecotourism venture. This direct visual link is much stronger than the indirect link in Scenario A in the form of employment opportunities.*

- ◆ **Ecotourism developments should meet the criteria of efficiency, equity, and sustainability.** Ecotourism developments should be efficient, thus the benefits must outweigh the costs; equitable, thus the costs and benefits must be distributed fairly; and sustainable, thus the benefits of this development must continue to outweigh the costs from the point of view of future generations. *In the Cathedral Peak Case Study, Scenario B was more efficient as result of the more fairly distribution of benefits, and by minimizing social costs to the local community. Furthermore, Scenario B was more equitable due to the greater amount of local participation, as well as the fact that the local community shared the costs by contributions of land and labour. Finally, Scenario B would also be the more sustainable option of ecotourism development at Cathedral Peak, mainly due to the fact that this scenario enable the local community to participate and benefit from ecotourism development, thus*

changing their attitudes towards a more positive outlook on the value of conservation and protected areas.

7.3 Recommendations

In addition to the specific recommendations made at the end of Chapter 6, the following general recommendations are made:

- ◆ Rural communities living adjacent to protected areas should be encouraged to participate in the development of ecotourism facilities, and associated activities in the protected area.
- ◆ Conservation agencies should ensure a participatory approach to local community in planning and management of integrated conservation and development projects in and adjacent to protected areas. A participatory approach would lead to a process of social upliftment in rural areas which would be sustained beyond the lifespan of these development projects.
- ◆ Ecotourism development projects should be explored as means to integrate protected area conservation and rural development. Such development projects would also provide local communities with an opportunity to social upliftment through capacity building and a process of empowerment.
- ◆ *The Checklist for Maximizing Community Participation in Ecotourism Developments as to Ensure the successful Integration of Protected Area Conservation and Rural Development* could be used to ensure local participation in all stages of the ecotourism development project cycle.

The principles and objectives discussed in this dissertation provides guidelines and recommendations to integrate protected area conservation and rural development. These principles and objectives would ensure a meaningful partnership between conservation authorities and rural communities, resulting in a participatory approach to conservation planning and management and the consequent upliftment of communities living adjacent to protected areas, to the mutual benefit of both.

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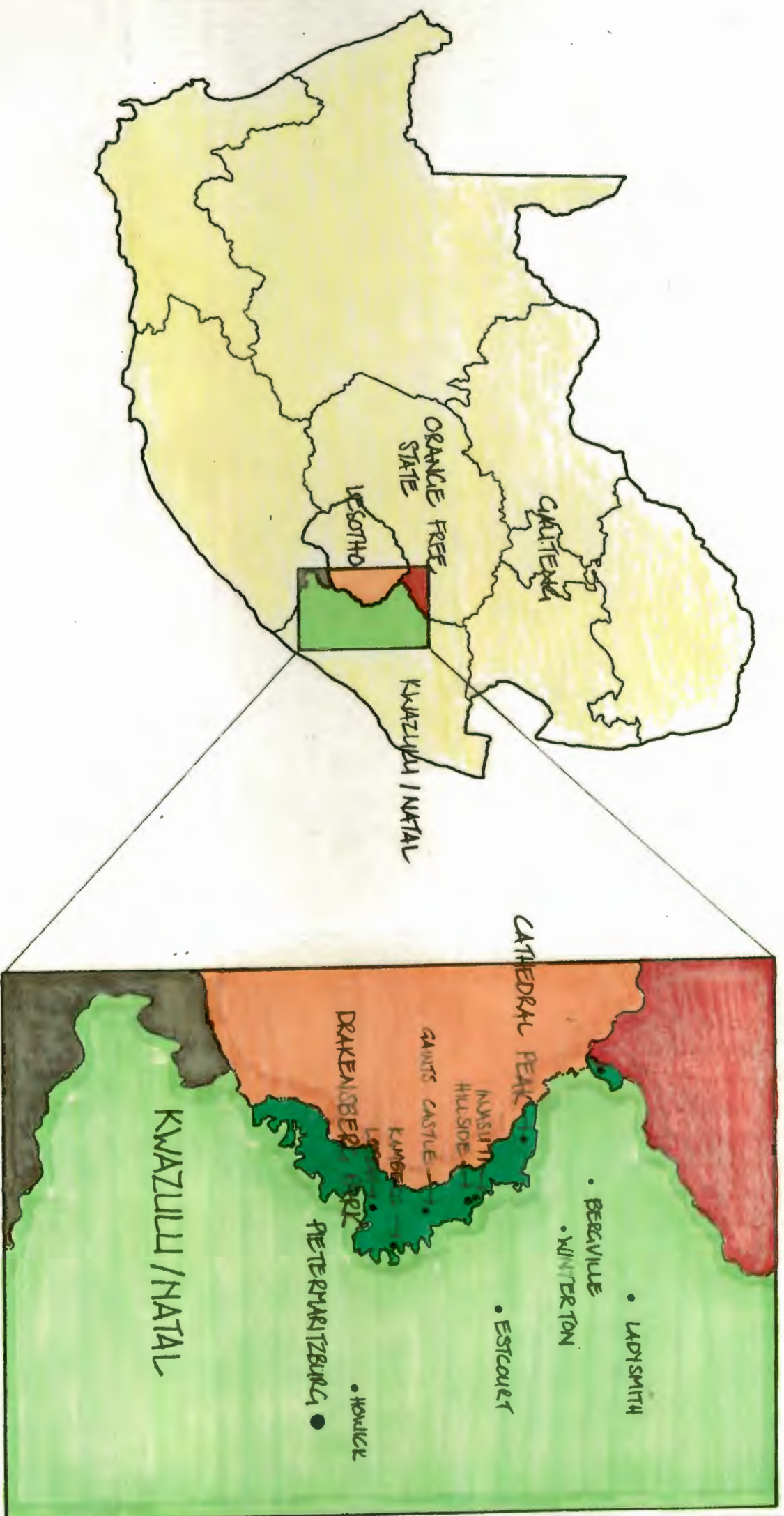
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List of Maps

<i>Map number</i>	<i>Description</i>
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Map 1	National and Regional Context of Cathedral Peak
Map 2	The eMhlwazini Ward
Map 3	The Landswop Area

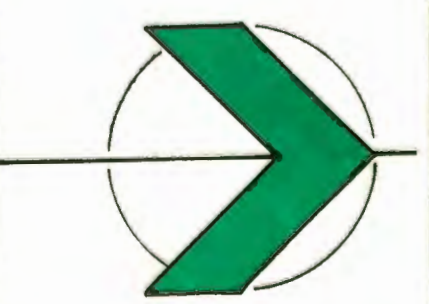


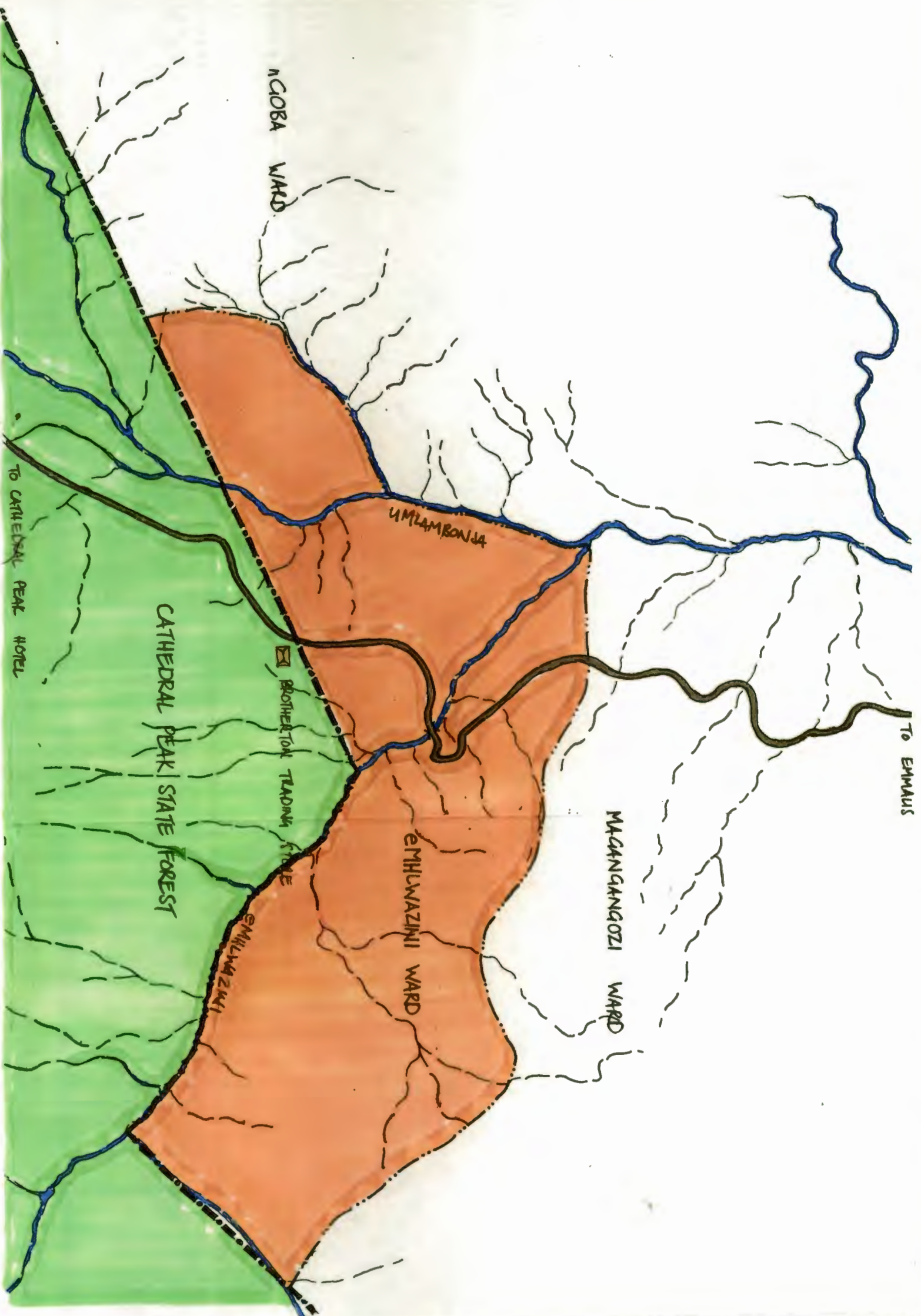
MAP 1 NATIONAL AND REGIONAL CONTEXT

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MAP 2 EMLWAZINI WARD

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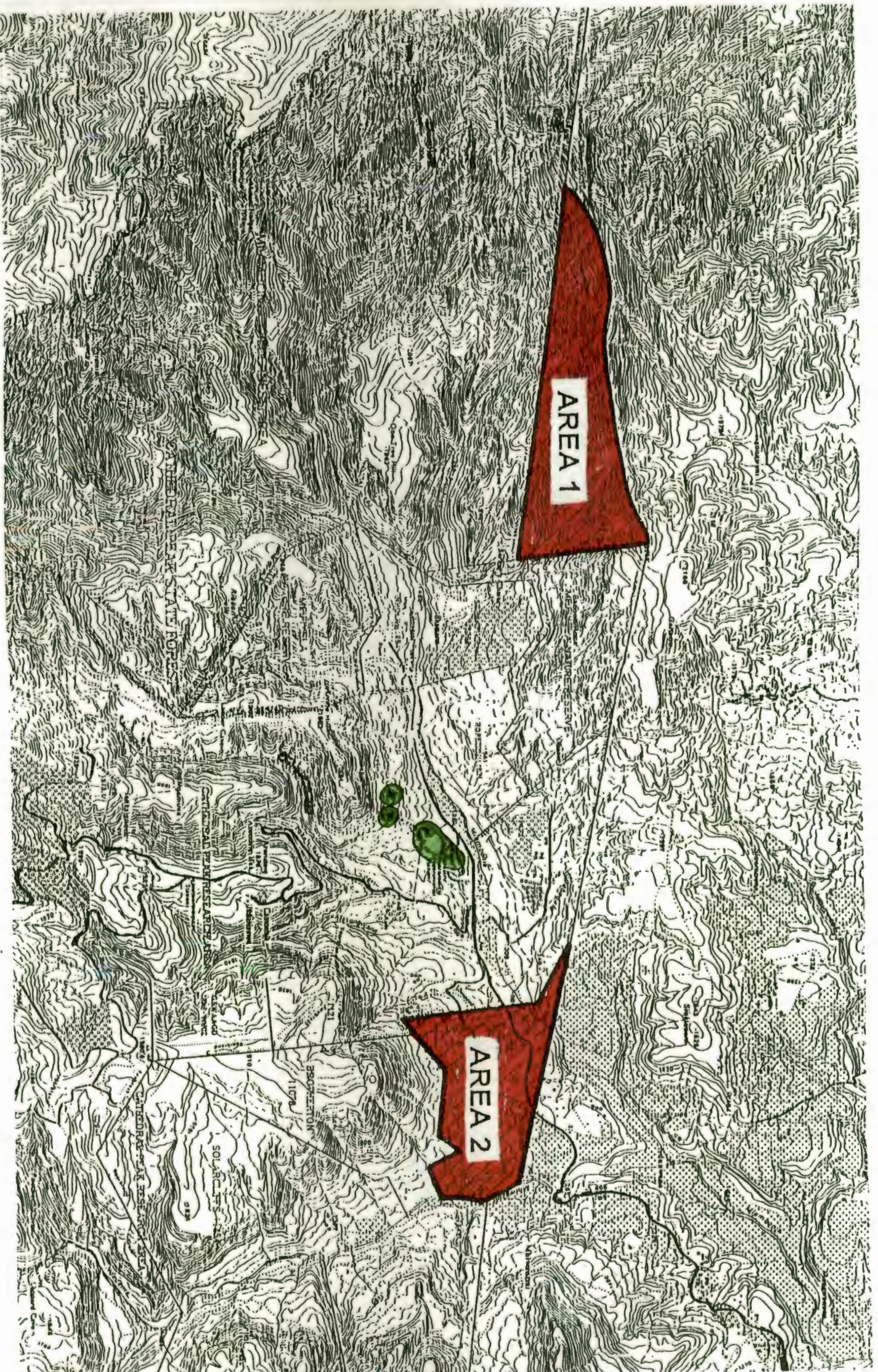
Cathedral Peak



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LANDSWOP AREAS

PROPOSED DEVELOPMENT SITES



(SOURCE: NPB PLANNING DIVISION)

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MAP 3 LANDSCAPE AREA

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